

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 15, 1880.

The Week.

TWO subjects have engrossed the attention of Congress to the exclusion of almost everything else. The bill to carry out the agreement of the Interior Department with the Utes was passed in the Senate on Monday by 37 to 16. This measure was most vehemently resisted by Western Senators who desire to open all available Indian reservations to white industry or cupidity, though singularly enough the two Colorado Senators were found on opposite sides. It was also opposed on the final vote by Mr. Edmunds, and perhaps others, on the ground of its unconstitutionality as infringing on the treaty-making power of the executive (though in this respect it sins in accordance with the Act of 1871 forbidding the making of any more "treaties" with the Indians); and we think he made it clear that those who supported the bill in the hope of averting a war at this time are likely to be disappointed. The "agreement" requires the assent of three-fourths of the Utes, and one of the difficulties pointed out by Mr. Edmunds is that they are divided into three separate communities, compelling any one of which to budge by force because outvoted by the remainder would seem a great hardship and indeed cruelty. Incidentally, also, he showed how doubtful is the power to exempt from *State* taxation the lands to be granted to the Indians in severalty. With no prejudice against the experiment, and apparently unable to suggest a better way out from the old to the new system, he could not overcome his scruples as to the legality of the bill.

The debate in Committee of the Whole on the Army Bill went along smoothly in the House until Wednesday week, when Mr. Sparks, of Illinois, from the Military Committee, introduced last year's rider forbidding the use of any of the money appropriated to subsist, equip, transport, or compensate any portion of the Army in the capacity of a police for keeping the peace at the polls "at any election held within any State." The debate here suddenly stopped, for the good reason that the Democrats had resolved to say nothing on their part, and were further warned by Mr. Sparks that any one of them who violated the agreement ought to be "shot on the spot." This left the field, such as it was, to the Republicans, who did what they could to put their opponents "on record"; and on the whole it is not doubtful that the Democratic policy was shortsighted. No Republican orator, however, had the candor to admit that the rider had a real justification in the party tendency to nominate Grant at Chicago. He was the last President to use the Army at the polls and in custom-houses and state-houses, and if the Stalwart talk of the need which the country has of him is to be construed literally, the precaution which the Democrats are taking is we will not only say natural but commendable. The Democrats allowed Mr. Ewing to sum up in reply, and he made himself somewhat unpleasant by showing that in 1868 the Republicans put a rider on the Army Appropriation Bill which deprived the President of the command of the Army; that in twelve years they tacked 387 political riders to appropriation bills; and that in the Forty-fourth Congress alone they tacked 44 political riders to such bills. In fact, it must be admitted that in raising this point on the present occasion, and especially in defence of the use of partisan deputy-m Marshals to supervise elections, the Republicans do not cut a very creditable figure. The bill was passed on Tuesday.

Local elections held during the week in various Northern States have been generally favorable to the Republicans. In Indiana and Ohio the Republican success was especially decisive and important; Cincinnati, for example, giving a Republican majority of 4,500, and Fort Wayne reversing the usual Democratic majority, with some

1,000 votes to spare. The Indiana constitutional amendments, providing for a single fall election and looking, among other things, to ballot-box reform, were carried in spite of vigorous Democratic opposition. Milwaukee has a Republican government for the first time since its incorporation, and Springfield, Ill., for the first time since 1860. In Rhode Island there was a general State election, which resulted in no choice by the people; explicit charges that the Republican candidate had bought his nomination having enlivened the campaign sufficiently to bring out a large prohibition vote. There has been in consequence a good deal of talk about the lesson given the Machine, but as the Legislature can be relied on it seems to make little difference whether the Machine gets a majority or a plurality at the polls.

The Connecticut Convention at New Haven last week was pretty decidedly anti-third term, and chose an uninstructed delegation to the National Convention that is divided between Edmunds, Washburne, and Blaine—exactly how, authorities are not agreed. The news from various other States in which only county conventions have been held as yet is not altogether trustworthy, being evidently colored by partisan optimism in many cases; but in the main it indicates that Missouri and Kentucky will instruct for Grant and Iowa for Blaine, and that the former will get a large majority of the Virginia and South Carolina delegations. The Blaine movement seems to threaten the Sherman boom in Ohio with partial eclipse, and there begins to be more talk of the Senator than of the Secretary in the Sherman papers there. In Illinois the Grant-Logan men are reported, on anti-Grant and Blaine authority, to have become suddenly stricken with alarm, the source of which is somewhat obscurely stated, but probably consists in sundry unexpected obstructions to the working of the different local machines. On the Democratic side Oregon and Iowa have chosen Tilden delegates to Cincinnati. Louisiana has virtually instructed for Hancock. Wallace is expected to have forty majority over the Tilden-Randall men in the Pennsylvania Convention, and in New York every effort for "harmony" has hitherto failed. Meantime the rumors of Mr. Tilden's utter physical incapacity appear to have broken out simultaneously in different parts of the country with renewed vigor. One paper, we notice, is anxious to bet five thousand dollars that he is hopelessly paralyzed, but this way of settling the question is generally regarded as impracticable.

The office of Commissioner of Patents is about to be vacated by Gen. Paine, and it is rumored that his designated successor is, though a lawyer, "without any considerable special training and experience in patent matters." We believe that we may add that his decisions on appealed cases, in the capacity of legal adviser to the Department of the Interior, have been far from giving satisfaction. Gen. Paine's administration has, in all respects except personal integrity, borne out the fears we expressed at the time of his appointment, and strengthens the argument of those who contended then, as they contend now, that the appointment should be in the line of promotion from within the Office, not only on the theory of a sound civil service, but because the requisite experience and trained judicial faculty can only be found there. Any difficulty which may arise from rivalry and "pressure" on the part of the body of examiners can surely be overcome, and at least should be disregarded in face of the importance of establishing the principle and of the immense interests at stake. There is even, as in Gen. Paine's case, a physical limit to the tenure of office on the part of an untried man. We are glad to see that a friendly remonstrance has been addressed to Secretary Schurz by so respectable an authority as Mr. Marcus S. Hopkins, and we hope it will be heeded.

It has been an exciting week in Wall Street, owing to a decline in the prices of the prominent speculative stocks of 1 to 8 per cent.

The money market was highly "manipulated," so as to induce the holders of stocks to sell them. Several millions of currency are said to have been withdrawn from the New York banks through the instrumentality of their country correspondents, and been held subject to the orders of the Wall Street stock speculators who are "bearing" stocks. Notwithstanding these withdrawals, which were intended to force the reserve of the banks down to figures which would compel a sharp contraction of loans, the weekly bank statement showed that the return of currency had been sufficient to prevent the expected reduction in reserve. The famous New York Central Syndicate closed its accounts during the week by selling the remnant of stock on hand, which amounted to about 50,000 shares. Among the buyers of this stock was Jay Gould, who threw his stock on the market for the purpose of adding to the general demoralization. The money which Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt received for this stock has all been invested in United States four per cent. bonds, so that he is by many times the largest individual holder of the public debt. From being the dictator of the railroad system of New York he becomes the typical "bloated bondholder," and makes himself a target for the complaining class of the whole country. His friends deny that he intends to relinquish his control of New York railroads, and say that he and his associates still preserve that control even after his enormous investment in the public funds. There has been during the week a fresh break in the price of iron, and the speculation in breadstuffs, provisions, and other staples has shown a downward tendency, even the price of printing-paper having receded a cent a pound. The market for foreign exchange has declined during the week, and the danger of gold exports has been again averted. Silver bullion declined in price during the week: the closing London quotation was 51½d. per oz.; the closing bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" here was \$0.8797.

A West Point colored cadet was found on Tuesday morning, the 6th inst., in his bed, with his hands and feet tied, the latter fastened to the bed-posts, his ears cut severely enough to bleed freely, a good deal of his hair clipped, but with no other bruise or abrasion on his person. There was blood on the floor, on the wall, and on an Indian club that stood in the room, and there was a good deal of water on the floor and on the bed-clothes. He appeared to be unconscious when discovered, but the reality was doubted by the doctor, who found his pulse good. He got up when released, recovered rapidly, and in a day seemed quite fit for duty. His story is that he was the victim of an outrage by three masked men, one of whom said, "Let us slit his ears like we do the hogs down South," but whose voices he did not recognize. Cadets slept in rooms on each side of him and across the hall, but heard nothing and he was not gagged. The theory of the officers of the Academy clearly is that he committed the outrage on himself, alone or with the help of a confederate, and the enquiry which has been set on foot is being most injudiciously, if not unfairly, conducted on this theory. The theory of his friends, on the other hand, is, that the affair is a piece of atrocious hazing perpetrated by whites on a colored boy whom they disliked, and whom from the beginning they had sent to Coventry, and that imputing it to himself is an aggravation of his injuries. It has caused more or less excitement in Congress, and curiously enough the two members most roused about it are Mr. Voorhees, of Indiana, and Mr. George Hoar, of Massachusetts. What brings these gentlemen together is Mr. Voorhees's hatred of the regular Army and all its belongings, and Mr. Hoar's interest in the colored race. Both have gone so far as to talk of the abolition of the School, and the Military Committee of the House has sent on a sub-committee to investigate.

It must be said that the case against Whittaker has undoubtedly grown weaker under investigation. It has not been shown that he could have tied himself as he was tied. The frequency of hazing at the School raises a presumption in his favor, and so does the fact that his white companions did not associate with him, and that probably many of them disliked him. On the other hand,

the doctor's report of his condition when discovered is against him; so is the trifling nature of his injuries. Nothing could produce more effect and blood for the amount of damage done than a slit in the ear. It is also extraordinary that, though not gagged, he should have raised no alarm loud enough to be heard by the cadets sleeping all around him. As to motive, supposing his injuries to be self-inflicted, the theory that the outrage would have saved him from an examination he could not pass seems to have broken down, as he has nothing, it is said, to fear from the examination. The best support of the imposture theory is the possible influence on a lonely boy, who has been suffering much from isolation and snubs, of the enormous interest which he has seen excited by stories of outrages on colored people.

One of the curious things in the expressions of feeling and opinion the affair has called forth is the indignation excited by the refusal of the cadets to associate with Whittaker. They are evidently expected by some people to display a superiority to prejudice to which their parents and friends outside the School make not the slightest pretence. Throughout the length and breadth of the North no white person makes a companion of a colored man, if he can avoid it. The cases where colored people are even treated as social equals occasionally by invitations and the like may be counted on one's fingers, and have almost always the character of a moral demonstration. In fact, the practice of the School faithfully reflects the practice of American society.

On Wednesday week the Unitarians celebrated at Brooklyn, Newport, and elsewhere with éclat the centenary of the birth of Channing. They did well, and yet it may be doubted whether another such celebration will ever take place—whether, to use Dr. Bellows's phrase at Newport, "his fame is still the morning star and is climbing the sky." Channing's theology, much as he did to liberalize that of New England, is already obsolete in the details of his creed, created no school, and has nothing in it which will guarantee it against the undermining force of the theory of morals involved in the new doctrine of Development. On this side his work was strictly for the time into which he was born, and its most tangible result was in the sudden conversion of Calvinistic into Unitarian meeting-houses in Massachusetts in the memorable year 1820. Among Channing's contemporaries his personal presence and character counted for more than his pulpit utterances; and what secured him the affectionate admiration of foreign philanthropists was his human sympathies, his passionate love of freedom of opinion, and his hatred of war—latterly, also, his opposition to slavery. That his intellectual reputation will hold its own we do not believe. He is not a "quotable" writer, and those who wish to get something of his spirit must drink deeply or not at all.

The National Republican League in Philadelphia has issued a tract on the third term which commends the efforts and the methods employed to secure General Grant's nomination "to the most earnest consideration of every well-wisher of his country"; recalls the various scandals of his Administration, in which Casey, Shepherd, Murphy, Leet, Simmons, Belknap, Robeson, Schenck, and Babcock figured; enforces the expediency and obligation of the two-terms rule; exposes the hollowness of the demonstration in favor of his re-election; explains the "boss" system as it is now showing itself all over the country; and mentions as the chief "bosses" of the United States Shepherd, Tweed, Kelly, McManes, Cameron, Conkling, and Logan; shows how the "boss" system worked in General Grant's second term through "the Senatorial Group," and the manner in which it now controls elections, and how it might be made, if it were allowed to strengthen itself, a means of effecting a real change in the nature of our Government while retaining the constitutional forms; and winds up by urging "patriotic Republicans to declare unequivocally that if driven to the alternative they will even prefer a Third Candidate to a Third Term." The Bosses are evidently growing savage under this relentless pursuit of them. The Phila-

delphia boss, McManes by name, finding a gentleman distributing this tract in the Union Club in Philadelphia, slapped his face and threatened a suit for libel. This is a good sign. Usually they smile at attacks on them, as long as there is no bolt at the polis. In fact, one of the essentials of a Boss is insensibility to public opinion.

The Pennsylvania bribers have all surrendered, but did not do so until after the court had adjourned. As some time must now elapse before they are sentenced, they have a further interval in which to "work" for a pardon. Kemble, the chief, only came in on Monday, having passed the time since his conviction at a New Jersey watering-place. On reaching the jail at Harrisburg and pending the finding of fresh bail, he indulged, the report says, in "boisterous laughter." A Philadelphia correspondent points out to us that we were in error in saying they *all* pleaded guilty. One, Petroff, went to trial, was ably defended, but was convicted with but little delay. It is said that the Council will not pardon, and that nothing but a third term can save them.

The elections in England are not all over, but the Liberals cannot have less than fifty majority over both Conservatives and Home-Rulers. The Tories had only forty after "the clean sweep" in 1874. Lord Beaconsfield is now busy rewarding his followers with titles before he goes out. Lord Salisbury, it is said, is to be consoled with a dukedom, and Lord Lytton, who has already resigned the Governor-Generalship, with an earldom, which will help the sale of his poems and novels. The chief difficulty with the Liberals now seems to be to find a place for Mr. Gladstone, whose greatness has reached almost unmanageable dimensions. It seems as if he must take office, but it will probably have to be an office without work, and which will leave him nothing to do but serve the party in the House. A great reception was prepared for him in London, but he, mindful of the somewhat circus-like procession after Beaconsfield came back from Berlin, has declined it. The discomfiture inflicted on the Court and London society by his victory is so great as to be almost ludicrous. Mr. Parnell's candidates appear to have after all triumphed in Wexford, and he himself has been returned for his former seat in Westmeath and for Mayo. His old recklessness of statement has in no way abated, as he has been telegraphing to the *Chicago Daily News* that the Liberals will depend for their majority on the Home-Rulers, who will, therefore, hold the balance of power, and he boasts much of what they will be able to achieve in this way. All this is, however, impudent fiction.

Prince Bismarck's huff and resignation have ended in the Emperor's refusing to accept the resignation, and in the Bundesrath's rescinding the vote refusing to agree to a stamp-duty on post-office order receipts, the small States having been frightened into surrender, apparently by a threat to change the constitution. Nothing could better illustrate the extraordinary preponderance of the personal element in the German Government than the Chancellor's resigning because the machinery of the constitution did not please him. The small States will probably not offend again in that direction, as they have ever since the war been afraid of their lives. The Pope has sufficiently appeased the ministers by his late Rescript to cause them to make communication to the Nuncio promising to modify the Falk Laws on receiving more formal evidence of His Holiness's pliability.

The unfortunate Chinese Ambassador at St. Petersburg lately negotiated a treaty by which China was to get back the Kuldja district in Turkestan, which formerly belonged to her, on payment of 5,000,000 roubles, whereupon his Government recalled him, and, it was at first reported, cut off his head; but it appears that he is simply under investigation and great displeasure. Reports of a resort to hostilities on the part of the Chinese have been current for some weeks, but do not appear to have any solid foundation. They have a very respectable force in that region, and probably a much

larger one than the Russians could bring to bear, though not so well armed or disciplined. The Beaconsfield Tories in England have, however, been undoubtedly in a state of more or less gleeful anticipation about the matter, and think that if China could be got to enter the lists fairly against Russia, with her improved military organization, it might seriously stay the advance in Asia of the great enemy of mankind. But Professor Martens, the well-known publicist, and who is supposed to know the mind of the Russian Government on most foreign questions, writes to the *Golos* denying that this view has received any official British support. He says the feeling against Russia at Peking is part of a general anti-foreigner feeling from which England would suffer as well as Russia, and he declares that the Russian Ambassador at Peking is receiving British support in his efforts to avert hostilities. Kuldja is a sort of *enclave* running into the Chinese territory, flanked on the south by Yarkand, which they recently retook from Yakub Beg, and on the north by a region they have long held. It forms a sort of triangle, with a mountain frontier, and the main Chinese objection to the treaty is that it would leave Russia in possession of the passes.

Prince Gortchakoff, for the last twenty years one of the most conspicuous figures in European politics, is dying of old age. His greatest prominence has been in the period since the outbreak of the Crimean war, when he was, on the death of the Emperor Nicholas, charged with the onerous duty of winning back for Russia her lost prestige and influence. This he did not accomplish, for it was not possible. Russia can never again weigh in Europe as she did between 1825 and 1853. But he did wonders. He enabled her to accept the results of the Crimean war with dignity and to get rid of the most disagreeable of them, the restriction on the Russian armament in the Black Sea, with great ease and rapidity, by skillfully availing himself of the confusion among the Western Powers which followed the rise of Prussia. M. Julian Klaczko has traced an entertaining picture of the game of finesse between Gortchakoff and Bismarck which went on without intermission between 1860 and 1870. In this it must be confessed the Russian Chancellor got the worst of it. Bismarck used him remorselessly during the two great wars which built up the German Empire, and made Russia no amends after the Turkish war of 1877. When they met at the Congress of Berlin Bismarck was master of the situation, and Gortchakoff was lagging superfluous on the stage, and since then he may be said practically to have retired from affairs, although holding the Chancellorship. He belonged essentially to the old school of diplomacy, which used deception freely as a favorite weapon, and was therefore for some time at a disadvantage in dealing with Bismarck, whose truthful announcements of his designs were for a good while considered in the diplomatic world illustrations of the clumsiness of his mendacity. Gortchakoff belongs to one of the oldest families in Russia, which in this generation has been especially distinguished, his two brothers having held high military commands—one the defender of Sebastopol.

General Roberts's proposal to the Afghan chiefs that they should agree upon an Amir and elect him, and that on his making a proper treaty the British troops should withdraw, seems likely to meet with acceptance. Some preliminary meetings have been held, at which the chiefs showed a peaceful disposition. What they represent, however, or whether Abderrahman Khan, the most formidable of the pretenders, is a consenting party, does not clearly appear. The Tory plan was to retain possession of Kandahar and a large patch of northeastern Afghanistan. Whether the Liberals will adhere to this programme remains uncertain. If the ground they have taken during the long campaign against the Tories be adhered to (and, to judge from a recent declaration of Lord Hartington's, it will be), no part of Afghanistan will be occupied, because they have maintained resolutely that the more of it they can put between themselves and any possible invader from the northwest the better. The little scheme for putting Persia in possession of Herat, which was Lord Beaconsfield's latest fancy, will, of course, be dropped.

THE STALWART, THE JINGO, AND THE FRIEND OF
"MORAL ORDER."

IT is very well known to everybody who has paid much attention to politics during the past year that within that period a division has shown itself in the ranks of that portion of the Republican party known as "Stalwarts." The Stalwart proper—the original Stalwart, that is to say—was a Republican in whose politics distrust of the South occupied a prominent place, and who dreaded the effects on the public credit, on the Federal bond, and on the condition of the negro population at the South of a return to power of the leading Southern politicians, and who, therefore, regretted Mr. Hayes's withdrawal from interference in the affairs of the Southern States, not because he (the Stalwart) was able to suggest any alternative, but because he thought it indicated a false security and over-confidence on the part of the Administration. Since the extra session of Congress, however, there has grown up a division in the Stalwart ranks over the question of remedy. The original Stalwart looked for protection against the dangers he dreaded to the ordinary processes of American government—that is, to victories at the polls, achieved mainly in the Northern and Western States, so as to put the Southerners and their Northern sympathizers in the minority in both houses of Congress and retain control of the Executive. Within a year a portion of the school or sect, or whatever one pleases to call it, have openly declared that these processes will probably not prove sufficient; that it will not be enough to put a Republican majority in Congress and a Republican President in the White House. They say that safety can only be found in the election of a particular man for the Presidency, and that he is the necessary man because he is a successful military man, noted for his courage and firmness, and who can be relied on to do whatever is desirable (*i.e.*, what he thinks desirable) to secure the executive for himself as a measure of public safety. They do not attach to his name anything in the nature of a list of principles or programme of measures. They rely wholly on his character and military reputation—or, in other words, offer *him* as their platform. They will not even define the methods by which he will see that Congress counts the electoral vote satisfactorily, or will "discriminate between vice and virtue," or "keep the rebels down," or "make treason odious." Nor will they indicate the source from which he will derive the power to do these things. All this, they say, must be left to him. He will take the needful authority and use it for good ends.

Now, nobody who watches the general stream of political tendency in our time can fail to be struck with the extraordinary resemblance of this development of American Stalwartism to two very remarkable phenomena of recent date in European politics—we mean what is known in France as "the Sixteenth of May," and the late Tory administration in England. The former consisted of an appeal to the country on the part of Marshal MacMahon, then President of the Republic, against the majority in the Legislative Assembly, whom he accused of something which he or his adherents called "latent Radicalism," and which he refused to define further than by saying that if allowed to have their way they would "disorganize the institutions" of the country, and put religion, the family, and property in peril. In other words, he declared that the state was exposed to a great danger at the hands of an indeterminate body of persons called "the Radicals," who had already exhibited their powers of mischief at the time of the Commune, and who would, if not anticipated, repeat their experiment before long on a greater scale. The majority in the Assembly, although perhaps not sharing their designs, were, he maintained, playing into their hands, and precautions must be promptly taken.

He accordingly dissolved the Assembly, and went to the country, but he refused to go to the country on the simple question whether his accusations against the majority of the Chamber were true, and whether this majority was worthy of confidence. He appointed a new ministry composed of "henchmen," and what they said was that the only true protection against the dangers he foresaw was the election not of a new Chamber holding

sound opinions on questions of the day, but of a Chamber willing in all things to submit itself to the judgment of the Marshal. Official candidates were presented to the constituencies in every district, and the official machine was put vigorously at work to secure their election, both by corruption and intimidation. They were not called "Conservatives" either, but "candidats du gouvernement du Maréchal MacMahon," and friends of the "ordre moral." No platform or programme was presented to the electors. They were simply asked to express their confidence in the "gouvernement du Maréchal." They were told that he was the man for the crisis; that he understood the designs of the Radicals and would know how to frustrate them. They were not told what his ideas about government were, or what schemes of legislation he had in view. Nor was it alleged that he was a man of political ideas, or had any political experience at all. The ground on which the country was asked to place itself under his protection was that he was a man of known courage and loyalty, who could not be trifled with, and that he was the "glorieux blessé de Sedan," and had illustrated his firmness and tenacity in the Malakoff by saying, "J'y suis, j'y reste." There was no pretence, of course, that the form of the government was in any way to be changed. The Constitution was to go on working as usual, but the country was to rely for its safety and peace not any longer on the wisdom and patriotism of its freely-elected representatives and on the soundness of the popular judgment, but on the courage and vigor and high temper of a soldier in the Presidential chair. We ought to add that the Marshal made a tour through the provinces immediately before the canvass in the character of a Strong Man, and of the hero of Sedan and the Malakoff. Receptions were everywhere carefully prepared for him, in which the Catholic clergy played a prominent part and prayed for and blessed him as the saviour of the country from the Radicals. His speakers and writers, too, made no secret of their belief that all the Liberals, from M. Thiers down, who opposed him were in secret sympathy with the anarchical designs of the Commune—very much as it is here sometimes suggested that anybody who objects to a Strong-Man candidate is favorable to the right of secession, the payment of the rebel debt, and the murder of negroes.

In England Lord Beaconsfield came into power, in 1874, as the result of a reaction against Mr. Gladstone's excessive legislative activity, and not through popular approval of the Conservative programme, for none was offered. He did not assume the rôle of a Strong Man until 1876, when the Turkish difficulty was raised by the Andriassy Note; but then he did assume it without hesitation, and was, owing to the extraordinary subservience of the Cabinet and of the Conservative majority in the House of Commons, able to keep it up to the general election. Parliament was not consulted about any of the large schemes of his foreign policy until the country had been committed to them, and Conservative writers and speakers of note produced in support of his system the theory that the Government had degenerated and the Empire been placed in peril by the practice of parliamentary omnipotence; that reform was needed by giving the sovereign a more active and prominent share in the administration, or, in other words, by relying to a much greater degree on the personal qualities, apart from his opinions, of the Prime Minister. This theory was boldly acted out down to the dissolution of Parliament, and Parliament was not dissolved until almost the last moment of its legal existence.

What is of most importance for the purpose of our parallel is, however, the nature of the appeal the Tory Minister made to the country before election. It was thoroughly in the line of his practice during his administration, and was, in fact, whatever its defects, a very neat exposition of the Strong-Man theory of government. It had the usual reference to the perilous situation of the country at this particular juncture owing to the nefarious designs of certain enemies of the Government. Without these enemies the Stalwart, the Jingo, or the Friend of Moral Order has not a leg to stand on, and he accordingly always paints them in the blackest colors. The Jingo's enemies are the Russians, the Home-Rulers,

and the Radicals—the first bent on the conquest of India; the second on the separation of Ireland; and the other on the destruction of the crown, the aristocracy, the church, and the army. Resistance to them by appeals to public opinion and trust in the workings of popular good-sense through the legislature, would not be sufficient. The true remedy was Beaconsfield. What he was going to do if he got a new lease of power he did not say, nor did any one say for him, except that he would save the country. People were asked to rely on his courage, his fertility of resource, and his sensitiveness about the national honor, and not to enquire curiously into his plans.

That this attempt to substitute Strong-Man government for parliamentary government, and to substitute for the slowly-gathered force of popular sentiment, working through constitutional forms, the will, energy, and sagacity of a single man, using constitutional forms like clothing for purposes of decency simply, but not concealing his opinion that they are somewhat of an encumbrance when a country has to be "saved"—that this attempt should be made in France, England, and the United States almost simultaneously, and that its conditions should be so nearly alike in all three countries, is a very suggestive circumstance. In all three there is a terrible public enemy—Radicals, Russians, or Brigadiers—whose designs, though not capable of accurate description, are monstrous in their wickedness, and are supported by so much force that the ordinary machinery of constitutional government cannot be relied on to meet them. In all three there happens to be a conspicuous Strong Man who has no fame whatever as a statesman, and has rendered the country no services of moment either in legislation or administration, but for whom, nevertheless, unlimited confidence is demanded. In all three no account is given, or even attempted, of the exact use he will make of his power or of the manner in which he will exercise it. The sole reliance of his supporters is in his capacity for frightening evil-disposed persons, though no good reason is given why they should be afraid of him. In all three, too, the appeal made for him is based on the assumption, which there is no attempt to disguise, that popular government has failed because it does not send the kind of men to the legislature which the Strong Man's friends approve of, or because somebody whom they dislike has been making speeches which seem to them violent or alarming.

In all three, finally, there is a marked indifference to the ordinary work of legislation, and to the ordinary peaceful internal interests of the country. The government takes the place of a sentinel, in fact, rather than that of an administrator, and is wholly absorbed in looking out for a foreign enemy—for the domestic enemy is, owing to the character of his designs, to all intents and purposes a foreigner—and is more desirous of developing martial ardor and a spirit of alert hostility, than in promoting peaceful industry and the hopeful repose of mind which is the first condition of successful industry. The Strong-Man movement is probably, in all three countries, due to somewhat the same composition of causes, viz., the coincidence of increasing timidity on the part of capital and conservatism with temporary rapidity of social and political change, or with the presence of some abnormally difficult political problem. In England, the presence of a scheming adventurer in the Premiership happened to coincide with the sudden renewal of the Eastern question, made up in equal parts of the inevitable decay of Turkey and of the inevitable growth of Russia. In France, the Sixteenth of May was suggested by the presence of a soldier in the Presidential chair at the moment when the final establishment of the Republic seemed close at hand. Here the conditions have been furnished by the recrudescence of the Southern problem under Democratic bad management, combined with the help given to the Machine's political resuscitation of General Grant by the great success of his European trip. But we have no doubt that the American people will dispose of this attack on popular government in as summary a fashion as the French disposed of the "Moral Order," and the English of the "Monarch and the Multitude," and that we shall hear no more of it in our time.

SCIENCE AND RELIGION IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

THE exceeding dulness of the season, from the news vender's point of view, has seldom been better illustrated than by the effort of the *Times* and *Herald* to give an account of a "conflict between science and religion" at Yale College, growing out of an alleged controversy between President Porter and Professor Sumner about the use of Herbert Spencer's 'Sociology' as a text-book. The reporter or correspondent of the *Times* who first went in search of the conflict found that none of the professors knew anything about it, or, at least, all admitted that he seemed to know much more than they did. On visiting Professor Sumner he was met by the information that the question of using Herbert Spencer's book had been discussed some three months previously between himself and the President in a slight way, and had then been dropped and not revived. This singular absence of facts about the conflict naturally excited his suspicions that if it had not broken out it was imminent, and by way of preparing the public mind for it he wrote another letter giving some account of Spencer's book, and indicating particularly the passages which would be likely to give offence to theologians. Usually when one paper makes a discovery of this kind its contemporaries treat it with scornful silence, but in the present case the *Herald* seems to have considered it of sufficient importance to see what it was the *Times* was after, and despatched a reporter to President Porter, whom the *Times* seems in a strange way to have neglected. After the usual description of the President's house and furniture, the emissary had to record that President Porter had some recollection of the conversation referred to with Professor Sumner, but that nothing came of it, and that he too knew nothing of the approaching conflict between science and religion in the university. The *Times*, nevertheless, has never given up its expectation of the convulsion, and has followed it in imagination to the Corporation, which, as containing a large majority of ministers, will, it confidently expects, give Professor Sumner the worst of it.

This little journalistic voyage of discovery, however, probably had behind it a desire in some quarter or other to find out how Religion stood to Science in Yale College. The *Independent* has been recently making similar explorations, not in Yale only but in other colleges, with the view of extracting from the Faculties an account of their attitude towards the doctrine of Evolution. The attempt was not, we believe, very successful, and resulted in the editor receiving in some quarters very rough handling, on the ground that he had incorrectly reproduced the views of eminent professors. From the head of one college the enquiries drew down positive vituperation of Evolution and its belongings. From none did there come any clear statement by which the college could fairly be bound. We presume the fact is that it is no longer easy for professors any more than for other men, however reflective, to say exactly where they draw the line between their faith and their reason, or between the things they believe because they can prove them, and the things they believe because they cannot help it and like to believe them. A very striking illustration of this vagueness of the dividing line was afforded by Dr. Asa Gray's recent masterly exposition of the doctrine of Evolution before the Yale Theological School. In following the exposition one moves in a world of pure law, but at the close the author admits the possibility of miracles, and, in fact, he recommends the retention of a corner of the mind for simple faith in things neither visible nor provable.

Probably no better account of the attitude of theologians, and in particular of those of New Haven, towards science, can be found than that in the volume of lectures on 'Faith and Rationalism' delivered by Professor Fisher, of the Yale Theological School, before the Princeton Theological School last year. He describes faith as springing out of feeling, as having "no connection with any particular grade of intellectual power," and as in large part the product of the will. It has its source in the conscience, in a sense of dependence, and in each man's personal experience of his needs. In fact, the lectures are an elaborate attempt to remove religious

belief from the domain of logic, and to create for it a field into which the machinery of intellectual proof will not be, and need not be, introduced. Speaking of Evolution the author says:

"It is obvious that the doctrine of Evolution relates to the extent of the operation of second causes, or efficient causes, in the production of the world as we see it—the Cosmos. The doctrine does not touch the question of the ultimate origin of the world; it does not necessarily touch the question whether the world as we behold it is the fruit of a designing mind; nor does it affirm or deny the continuous co-operative agency of God in the processes of nature. Physical or natural science, as such, has nothing to do with religion. Its field of enquiry is second causes. In exploring for links of causal connection between the objects of nature it is engaged in its proper work. Wherever it judges it impossible to find such links it must say so. But science is right in never giving up the search so long as there is any probability of success, and nothing is more unreasonable than to raise an outcry against a man like Mr. Darwin for broaching the hypothesis of a common descent of animals, and for adducing the evidence which leads him to favor it. If there be anything in that hypothesis to affect the doctrine of theism it must be in collateral assertions which are sometimes made in connection with it. It does not inhere in the theory itself."

From these and other passages in the same work it is tolerably plain that liberal theologians, both in New Haven and elsewhere, have discovered, or think they have discovered, a *modus vivendi* between Science and Religion. The plan may be called roughly that of a division of territory between two claimants, each of whom has been contending for the whole. But that this is a concession on the theological side is plainly to be seen from the great subsidence of controversy between the scientific men and the theologians which has taken place within the last ten years. The active polemics which raged during the earlier period of Darwin's, Huxley's, Tyndall's, and Lyell's prominence has ceased, and the main cause of its cessation has undoubtedly been the abandonment by theologians of attempts to contend with the scientific men in their own fields, the attempt—that is to say—to overthrow scientific hypotheses or inferences by means of Scriptural authority or Church tradition, or by means of arguments drawn from the mischief which such hypotheses or inferences would probably work in practice. Outside of the Catholic Church very few clergymen venture on anything of the kind now. After this had been given up there was for a while a disposition to try the plan of taking the facts as furnished by scientific men themselves, and working them over with the logic taught in schools of philosophy and theology, so as to show that the men of science could not extract from their own premises what they thought they could. But this too has been abandoned by all theologians of mark. It was very soon discovered that no man can reason successfully among facts of whose connection with each other and probative force he knows little or nothing.

Whether Professor Fisher's basis of peace can be made permanent must still be considered very doubtful. There runs through his argument, as through that of many of his associates, the assumption that there is a body of persons competent to answer for science, as there is a body of persons competent to answer for theology and settle questions of disputed boundary and the like; and from this error—for error it can easily be shown to be—there has arisen more than one proposal to scientific men to make peace with religion, and concede this and agree not to touch that, just as a church synod or council might draw up a creed or define a heresy. But science is not and cannot be in the keeping of any man or any body of men. Nobody is authorized to say the last word for it or in any way speak in its name. It does not consist of a body of beliefs; it consists of a body of laws, some known and some unknown. The scientific man is not a master or philosopher or prophet. He is an explorer, and he cannot predict what he will discover, or pledge himself that what he may discover will or will not have any particular effect on the mind of the civilized world. Will does not play any part in shaping scientific belief, as it does in shaping religious belief, and the attitude of readiness to believe or of desire to believe, and the feeling of the need of belief, which Professor Fisher makes one of the

sources of faith, not only play no part in directing a scientific man's labor, but are among the things which he has most sedulously to avoid. He is, therefore, absolutely incapable of negotiating with anybody about anything.

That Professor Fisher's position with regard to Evolution, or, in fact, with regard to natural science generally, is one which Theists may and will continue to occupy for an indefinite period, nay, probably must occupy for ever, there can be little doubt. But whether that portion of the domain of theology which is appropriated to the evidences of the *historical* truth of Christianity is one which can be protected against the intrusion of scientific methods is very questionable indeed. The attacks of Rationalism on all that portion of a man's religious faith which he draws from his conscience, from his experience of his own needs, and from the exercise of his will ministering to those needs, may be easily repelled. But that portion which he draws from the truth of certain historical facts, and the authenticity and correct interpretation of certain writings, must of necessity be for ever open to the operation of the laws of intellectual proof, and will, therefore, probably continue to be the object of assault both to Rationalists and Rationalistic modes of thought. It is probably, too, rather from the mental attitude it creates among even plain people, rather than from the direct criticism of scientific men or sceptics, that historical religion suffers most, and on this side we must expect to see the conflict go on. Signs of it in the Church itself are very numerous, and not the least important is the immense liberty of interpretation which both ministers and laymen are allowing themselves in our day. Pending the discovery of a final resting-place, however, disputants of all schools must take some comfort in the fact that the mundane ends of religion do not seem to have ever, on the whole, been more fully attained than in our own day. Human society has never displayed so many marks of the kingdom of God, and love and hope have never done so much to sweeten human life.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN CONSERVATISM.

II.

LONDON, April 1, 1880.

WITH your permission I will now examine the reply to the second and third questions which in my former letter I left unanswered.

What, in the second place, would appear to an English observer to be the causes of what I have termed the conservative temper of America?

The reply hardly admits of doubt. Society in America is conservative because throughout the Northern States (to which alone I venture to refer) there is a noticeable absence of the conditions which in other countries evoke the desire for innovation. These conditions are material want or discomfort among the mass of the people, and the existence of a large body of persons given to speculative pursuits and irritated by the social or political circumstances by which they are surrounded. In a country where there is, as compared with Europe, a wide diffusion of material comfort; where, though many men are partially educated, few persons devote their whole minds to theoretical interests; where the arrangements of the state in the main correspond with the habits of the people, and where (perhaps it may be added) the absence of all opposition to the popular will slightly deadens even the passion for freedom, you may be certain—at any rate if the members of such a community belong to the English race—to find that predominant disposition to leave things as they are which, under all the apparent restlessness of American life, seems to a foreign critic to constitute the fundamental political tone of the American people.

What (to deal with my third and last question) are the inferences which the existence of American conservatism suggests to an English observer?

The first and to European statesmen by far the most important is that there is no connection except one of historical association between democratic government and revolutionary habits. Observation of America suggests that the great French Revolution has produced at least as much confusion in the world of political speculation as in the world of political action. In England, and still more on the Continent, men are still unconsciously confused by the memories of the Reign of Terror. Republicanism shook, or appeared to shake, the very foundations of so-

city; and because the attempt to establish Democratic institutions produced revolution, calm observers find it difficult even now to believe that a republic when established has not necessarily a close connection with what is called the revolutionary spirit, or, in other words, with the constant craving for change. Englishmen, indeed, are beginning to perceive that the lessons of the French Revolution have, though naturally enough, been grossly misinterpreted. A fair analysis of the principles which have governed France since 1789 shows that the majority of the French people have, from the moment that their urgent wants were satisfied, been the victims rather of selfish conservatism than of the excessive love for innovation; whilst thirty years' experience of the Swiss democracy should convince us of the futility of the dogma that freedom is inconsistent with order.

The Conservatives, however, of the Continent still dread the very name of a republic. Frenchmen, especially such as the Duc de Broglie, are haunted by the spectre of 1791. They may play with the popular dread of revolutionary violence, but no one can doubt that they are also the dupes of their own panic. No exorcism is so potent to lay the spirit of unreasoning fear as a study of the United States as they actually exist. No one who uses his eyes and looks facts in the face can doubt that in America, at least, popular government has no more necessary connection with the revolutionary spirit than in England monarchical government has with despotism. Indeed, the tendency of any one who reflects on the condition of your country will, it may be suspected, be to revert to a train of thought familiar to the thinkers of the eighteenth century, before their intellectual calm was disturbed by the shouts of the Paris mob and by the sight of the guillotine.

"Nothing," writes Hume, "is more surprising to those who consider human nature with a philosophical eye than to see the easiness with which the many are governed by the few, and to observe the implicit submission with which men resign their own sentiments and passions to those of their rulers." "When popular discontents," writes Burke in a celebrated passage, "have been very prevalent, it may well be affirmed and supported that there has been generally something found amiss in the constitution or in the conduct of the government. The people have no interest in disorder; when they do wrong it is their error and not their crime—'Pour la populace, ce n'est jamais par envie d'attaquer qu'elle se soulève, mais par impatience de souffrir.'" These sentiments appear, indeed, somewhat out of date, and to belong to an age unlike our own. They are in truth, however, specially applicable to modern times, when experience no less than theory really proves that it is with people as with children: what they are allowed to do they often do not care to do at all; and a democracy with uncontrolled power to change everything is constantly found indisposed to alter anything.

The second inference which American conservatism, combined with a survey of the history of the United States, suggests to an impartial observer is closely allied to the conclusion that republicanism has no special connection with a love of change, but will hardly meet with ready acquiescence from your readers. This inference is that bonâ-fide popular government, the existence of as wide individual freedom as is compatible with the maintenance of law, complete legal and nearly complete social toleration both of free discussion and of differences of opinion, are not in themselves conditions which ensure either general activity of intellectual speculation or a general interest in the promotion of original thought. All these conditions are fulfilled in the Union as it now exists. Can, however, any honest critic assert that American society is the home of extraordinary intellectual energy? No doubt more people are with you intelligently interested in what may be roughly termed intellectual matters than in any other country throughout the world. To put the matter simply, a greater proportion of your citizens are, I take it, intelligent readers than can be found in an European nation; but as far as a foreigner can judge from the obvious facts of the case, your educated classes follow in the main the lines pursued by the same classes in England, and are somewhat less agitated than Englishmen by the moral, social, or religious problems of the day. Scarcely any one will contend that you will find either in America or, indeed, in England the same speculative enthusiasm as was to be seen in France towards the close of the *ancien régime*, or, to take another example, anything like the burst of speculative and imaginative energy which prevailed in the little principalities of Germany at the beginning of the present century. Let us take another basis of comparison, and contrast the United States of to-day with American society of a century back. Washington, Franklin, and Hamilton, and the body of men who, born as British subjects, created the Union, have probably like other heroes gained something from distance, and have gained even more

from the fact that their activity was displayed on a stage which attracted the eyes of the world; still, the fact remains that these men, bred in a colonial province and under influences far less democratic than the institutions of modern America, are to this day the heroes of the Republic. Do not suppose that I in the least wish to hint at any exceptional decline in the intellectual power of America. Fluctuations in the capacity for developing genius are noticeable in all societies. There is nothing in England to compare with the group of celebrities who, to use a convenient Gallicism, "illustrated" the age of Scott, of Wordsworth, of Brongiam, of Sydney Smith, and of Bentham. Modern France does not display the brilliancy of intellect which shone forth in the time of Voltaire, Diderot, and Rousseau. The Germany of Moltke and Bismarck does not compare very favorably with the Germany of Goethe, of Schiller, of Niebuhr, and of Stein. My aim is not to show that American society exhibits any special deficiency in mental power, but simply to point to the conclusion that republican freedom is not a security for intellectual activity.

The idea that liberty must of itself stimulate speculative energy, or, in other words, necessarily produce a spirit of active enquiry and of theoretical innovation, is natural enough. There is a real connection between individual liberty and freedom of thought, for the rule of liberty takes away the deadening influence of persecution. To this it may be added that as long as the free expression of opinion is the privilege of but very few countries, the states which enjoy this privilege will attract to them bold thinkers who cannot otherwise find room for their energies. Hence in the last century Holland, England, and Geneva shone with intellectual glories not properly their own. It was, therefore, all but inevitable that men who knew by experience that persecution might be strong enough to destroy the very springs of speculative power, and who saw that free states were the homes of intellectual innovators, should conclude that there was a closer connection than in fact exists between political liberty and speculative activity. The extended experience of mankind has now taught us that persecution itself is, though when carried beyond a certain limit fatal to free thought, by no means its only enemy. Human indolence is, after all, the deadliest, because the most permanent, foe to intellectual achievements. We may, perhaps, even maintain that ineffective persecution—that is, persecution which irritates without destroying those upon whom it falls—is favorable to the promotion of speculative energy. Forbidden fruit has a peculiar charm just because it is forbidden. When this charm is removed it is often found that few persons care to climb high in search of the out-of-the-way fruits of the tree of knowledge. To say that moderate persecution occasionally produces some slight benefit by the reaction which it causes in its victims against the doctrines enforced by their persecutors, is not to tender an apology for intolerance. There are other things quite as important to mankind as the existence of vehement intellectual activity. To say that Voltaire or Diderot would not have displayed the whole of his powers in any society more tolerant than that in which he lived, is quite consistent with the belief that the intellectual and moral vices of the Regency were a dear price to pay for the rapid and rather hasty growth of the spirit of enlightenment. But, however this may be, the fact that unlimited freedom, while leaving room for speculation, does not in itself stimulate men's intellectual activity, is worth notice. As one contemplates (neither for praise or blame but simply with a view to fair criticism) the marked conservatism of America, one is forced, or at least led, to the conclusion that the democracy of the future, as it will not justify the fears of reactionists, will also somewhat disappoint the sanguine expectations of democratic enthusiasts. Freedom will, like wisdom, be justified of her children. She will, we may suspect, produce throughout the civilized world orderly, law-respecting, conservative societies, which will ensure progress, but will also take good care that mankind does not advance at too rapid a pace or dash recklessly into unknown paths.

A. V. DICEY.

WAGNER'S "TRISTAN AND ISOLDE."

MUNICH, March, 1880.

ALTHOUGH it has always been the ambition of Wagner to be considered the most German of all artists, fate would have it that the most thoroughly German of all his works was written in exile after almost ten years of enforced absence from his fatherland. Switzerland and Italy, Zürich, Luzerne, and Venice gave rise to the impressions amid which, during the years 1857-59, the poetry and music of "Tristan and Isolde" originated. Before beginning on it Wagner had almost finished the second of the three "evenings" which, with "Rheingold," make up

his Trilogy. "Tristan" therefore comes after "Siegfried," but before "Götterdämmerung" and the "Meistersinger." The cause of the interruption of work on the Trilogy was that Wagner, as he locked in his desk one after another of his Nibelung scores, more and more felt the impossibility of having such a work performed on an operatic stage such as at that time devastated the musical taste of the country; and lest he should become totally estranged from the public, he concluded to write one or two separate works which would have a better chance of being immediately put into scene. It was at this period of his life that Wagner received from the Emperor of Brazil an offer to come to his capital and write an opera for the Italian troupe established there. Had this offer been accepted "Tristan" would have been the first great musical work created in America. But Wagner was too practical a man not to see the utter incongruity of the words Rio de Janeiro, Italian opera troupe, and "Tristan and Isolde." He saw that there were only one or two countries in which such a drama could expect intelligent appreciation. And yet Wagner, though no one has ever accused him of a want of self-conceit, was not conceited enough to believe that his own musical intelligence was so far ahead of that of the musical world of that date that all his efforts to produce "Tristan" at Karlsruhe, Vienna, and Paris would miserably fail. The fact that even the simple "Lohengrin," now the most popular opera on the stage, was at that time regarded with horror by most musicians as a mere boiling mass of cacophonous discords without even a film of melody on the surface, probably taught him patience. At last the discovery of the gifted Schnorr von Carolsfeld and his wife enabled Wagner, under the patronage of the King of Bavaria, and with the assistance of Hans von Bülow as conductor, to give in Munich, in 1861, those four model performances of "Tristan" which are to be regarded as a sort of prelude to the Bayreuth Festival fifteen years later. Those who wish to know the interesting circumstances attending these first performances of "Tristan" may be referred to Glasenapp's 'R. Wagner's Leben und Wirken,' in which the excitement and attendant scandals are described, and an account is given of the parody, "Tristanerl und Süßholde," which then appeared. Since the death of Schnorr von Carolsfeld, Herr and Frau Vogel have taken the leading rôles at the several public repetitions of the drama in Munich, and whenever "le roi s'amuse" by having a performance all to himself. The public has meanwhile been educated and its taste purified by the frequent performances of the "Nibelungen," so that when, after an interval of several years, "Tristan" was again given on the seventh and fourteenth of this month, there was not a discordant voice in the prolonged and deafening applause which followed each act.

Those who are in the habit of attributing Wagner's successes to the brilliant scenic effects in his operas should note that in the present case such a thing is altogether out of the question. In "Tristan" the music is pre-eminent and the scenic charms reduced to a minimum, "Tristan" being in this respect the exact opposite of "Rheingold." It is also well to note that in Wagner's version of 'Tristan and Isolde,' the coarse and sensual elements which pervade the various original forms of the old legend have entirely disappeared, and we have left the purest type of passionate love and love's despair, the catastrophe being due, as in all good tragedy, to an inevitable power of nature and destiny—in this case the magic love-potion, which is here, as a bit of mediæval local color, quite in place. For those who have not enough imagination to sympathize with such a motive, because modern medical science does not recognize the existence of magic love-potions, "Tristan" was not written. Such folks will find a more congenial sphere of enjoyment in mathematics or osteology than in poetry or music. Some time previous to the events embodied in the drama *Morold*, *Isolde's* fiancé, had come from Ireland to Cornwall to collect his customary tribute. Here he was slain by *Tristan*, nephew of *King Marke*. His head was sent back to his bride *Isolde*. But *Tristan* himself had received a dangerous wound, and, as a last resort, he resolved to seek the assistance of *Isolde*, who had learned from her mother the magic art of healing. He came under the assumed name *Tantris*, but *Isolde* soon recognized him as *Tristan*, for she discovered in his sword a notch into which a piece of iron she had extracted from *Morold's* head fitted exactly. She raised the sword to avenge her lover's death, but, suddenly meeting his eyes, became overpowered by a strong emotion and dropped the sword, while he, as she afterwards ironically reproached him, "took in her image" to see if she would make a good wife for *King Marke*. When his wound was healed he returned to Cornwall, and there induced the king to despatch him again to Ireland to sue for *Isolde* as his future queen. When the curtain rises on the first act we behold *Isolde* in the prow of a large ship, on which *Tristan* is

conveying her to his uncle. *Isolde* in passionate tones recounts *Tristan's* "treachery" to *Braugäne*, her faithful companion, whom she bids prepare the death-potion and then summon *Tristan* to drink it with her as an expiation. *Tristan* at first refuses to leave the rudder, as custom forbade the suitor to see the bride on the journey. At last he yields, the orchestra announcing his appearance by a series of very impressive abrupt chords. She gives him what she believes is the death-potion, but suddenly snatches the cup from his lips and drinks her portion of it. *Braugäne*, however, resolved to save the life of her mistress, had secretly substituted the love-potion for the poison. Its effect is immediate, and the situation is one of those in the painting of which Wagner excels. The weird and thrilling motive on which the whole drama is built up is heard in the orchestra, first below, then on the highest *tremolo* notes of the violins. As it grows more intense and passionate its strains are embodied and reflected in the mimic action and attitude of the two lovers, until, succumbing to the potent charm, they meet in a passionate embrace. Slowly acted, the scene is ridiculous. To keep pace in mimic action with forty bars of slow music, representing the gradual development of the highest passion of love, is a task to which very few actors are equal. As executed by Herr and Frau Vogel the scene was sublime. An æsthetic thrill paralyzed the audience like a strong electric current, changing it into so many thousand motionless statues watching the proceedings on the stage. A man near me fainted and had to be carried out. Suddenly the chorus of the seamen announces that the ship has arrived off the coast of Cornwall. The curtain that has shut off the sight of the poop of the ship is pushed aside, and we behold the men swinging their hats and greeting the king, who approaches on a small boat to meet his bride, while his castle is seen towering above the cliffs on the coast.

The curtain falls, and when it rises again *Isolde* and *Braugäne* are seen in a garden adjoining their apartment. It is a warm summer night. A torch is burning near the open door, the extinction of which is to announce to *Tristan* that all is safe for a clandestine interview. Gradually dying away in the distance we hear two sets of forest horns, responding to each other in different keys. These calls mingle with the now subdued, now agitated tones of the orchestra in an exquisitely dreamy manner. It is a little idyllic scene only equalled by the forest-scene in "Siegfried." The love-intoxicated *Isolde* takes these sounds for the murmuring of the leaves shaken by the wind. The more sober *Braugäne* knows that what they hear are the horns of the king's attendants, and suspects that the hunting expedition is a mere sham to put them off their guard. For one of the courtiers, *Melot*, is jealous of *Tristan*, and has resolved to betray him to the king, in whose company he will suddenly surprise the lovers. But *Isolde* is deaf to these suspicions and to *Braugäne's* entreaties. She dashes the torch to the ground, where it is extinguished; and shortly thereafter, as if borne along on the tumultuous tone-waves of the music, *Tristan* approaches. Entirely apart from the music, I think no artist has ever so truthfully represented the meeting of two lovers in words that are the very onomatopœia of passion, the language of emotion itself. Then follows the famous long duet in which the praises of night are sung as against the spiteful day, whose symbol, the torch, had so long separated the lovers. In a mutual embrace, forgetful of all the world, they gradually sink down on a flower-bench. The bench alone is on the stage, the flowers are heard. The orchestra becomes a perfect oriental garden of fresh and fragrant melodies, some of them, like the fragrance of a tuberose or hyacinth, almost overwhelming in their sweetness. The scene is one long *nocturne*, in which the dreamy, sweet, and exquisitely tender alternates with outbursts of excitement and fierce passion. "O sink hernieder, Nacht der Lieder" is one of the class of chaste yet intense melodies that have so endeared "Lohengrin" to the people; and it is only one of a long series that follow one another in "Tristan." This enchanting love-scene is suddenly rudely interrupted. *Braugäne's* suspicions prove to have been well founded. The king, followed by *Melot* and his attendants, suddenly appears and confronts *Tristan*, who in his confusion endeavors to hide *Isolde* with his cloak. The king addresses a long string of reproaches to his nephew and benefactor, in which the beauty of the music fully atones for the somewhat undramatic situation. *Tristan* replies dreamily that he can never account to him for his conduct, and then turns to *Isolde* and asks her if she will follow him to his own home. Hearing this, *Melot* shouts "Treason!" and rushing forward, stabs *Tristan*.

The wound was not deadly, for in the third act we again behold *Tristan* on a couch, unconscious, in the yard in front of his castle in Bretagne, whither *Kurwenal* had conveyed him after the affray with *Melot*. Fearing for the life of *Tristan*, *Kurwenal* has secretly sent for *Isolde*. A ship

herd has been stationed on the rocks to watch for the approach of her ship. His quaintly mournful melody is heard alone for several minutes after the beautiful, sad orchestral introduction, and indicates that the ship is not yet in sight. Suddenly the melody becomes excited and joyous, and *Kurwenal* rushes down to meet *Isolde*. While he is away *Tristan*, delirious with excitement, tears off the bandage of his wound just as *Isolde* is heard calling out his name. She arrives in time to hear his last word, "Isolde," and to catch his lifeless body in her arms. As she bends over him, bitterly reproaching him for leaving her at this moment, the shepherd rushes in again to announce the arrival of another ship with the king and his attendants. The door is quickly barricaded. *Kurwenal*, after slaying *Melot*, himself receives a deadly wound and falls down by the side of *Tristan*. The catastrophe, though inevitable, was needless; for the king, to whom *Braugüne* had meanwhile revealed the secret of the love-potion, had come, not to reclaim *Isolde*, but to give her to *Tristan*. *Isolde* rouses herself once more to sing those despairingly beautiful verses "Mild und leise, Wie er lächelt," etc., the grand musical strains of which are known to all as the *finale* so often heard at concerts. As Schuré finely expresses it: "Le dernier chant d'Iseult est le chant du cygne de l'amour, la transfiguration de l'amant par l'amante, le mariage de deux âmes sœurs avec l'âme du monde."

It will be seen from this brief sketch, in which I have had to pass over many of the fine poetic touches, that of action in the ordinary sense of the word there is little in "Tristan," which in the plastic simplicity of its scenes resembles the ancient Greek dramas. That Wagner has nevertheless distinguished "Tristan" from all his other works by the name of "*Handlung*," may be partly due to the fact that he objects to the word "music-drama" on philological and historical grounds. Partly, however, the claims of the work to the name "drama" may be made clear in this way. The proper aim of a drama is to represent the growth and conflicts of emotions. This end is usually best attained by rapid and exciting action. All the more praise, however, is due the artist who can reproduce the same play of feelings by simpler means. In "Tristan" the action and mimic display, the poetry and the music, are as inseparable as the form, color, and perfume of a rose. Three powerful arts, therefore, affect the hearer's mind simultaneously, each supplementing the deficiencies of the other—for we know that each art has its limits of expression. The result is that every shade of feeling expressed in the drama becomes the hearer's own emotion. He forgets his individuality, and by merging his perceptive consciousness in the object perceived identifies himself with the work of art, and thus enters into that dream-like state which Schopenhauer correctly makes the condition of true aesthetic enjoyment. We know that Wagner himself, while at work on "Tristan," was in a state of "fine frenzy," or artistic inspiration, in which all conscious reflection ceases, all theoretical notions are forgotten, and the brain from its accumulated stores dictates to the hand automatically what it shall write. It is for this reason that, with the exception of the last act of the "*Meistersinger*," none of Wagner's dramas is so inspired and inspiring, so full of spontaneous and original ideas throughout, as "Tristan und Isolde." It is, in my opinion, not only his own greatest work, but it ranks with Beethoven's "Last Symphony" and Bach's "Passion Music" as one of the three greatest compositions in existence.

On hearing "Tristan" for the first time perhaps nothing will so astonish those who get their notions about Wagner from Semitic newspapers as the persistent silence in it of the brass instruments, especially the trombones. On the other hand, even those who, like myself, had previously heard all Wagner's works from half-a-dozen to a dozen times, will find in "Tristan" new clang-tints of dazzling brilliancy, that will be almost as pleasant a surprise to them as the sight of an entirely new color in the solar spectrum would be. And these colors are not only new, they seem to be demanded by the situations. It is in his exquisite sense of the appropriateness of certain combinations of instruments for the expression of definite emotions that Wagner has excelled all his predecessors. While his imitators, such as Raff and Goldmark, make the most indiscriminate and unwarrantable use of these new orchestral resources, Wagner never allows the desire for an effect to conflict with his fine dramatic instinct. The most striking proof of this is afforded by a comparison of "Tristan" and the "*Meistersinger*," composed immediately after it. "Tristan," as already intimated, has the character of one long nocturne, which chiefly craves the warm and tender tones of the strings, while in the "*Meistersinger*," with its choruses and festive assemblies and processions, the grand and majestic tones of the trombones are in place, and accordingly are used with great effect throughout the drama. And no less admirable than the orchestration of "Tristan" is its musical form. Rhythmically,

it is not possible to conceive a work of greater variety and ingenious complexity. The same may be said of the harmonic progressions and modulations. Just as in life happiness is increased by the alternating play of desire and its gratification, so in modern music the accumulation of discords and their gradual and unexpected resolution enable the artist to express depths of emotion not dreamt of by musicians of past eras. I know no other composition in which all the parts are so closely related and organically connected as in "Tristan." It seems as if the removal of a single bar would be as fatal as the removal of a stone from an architectural structure. This unity of form is due to a great extent to the skilful use of the leading motives. The *Leitmotiv* in dramatic music has the same importance as the theory of Development in science: it gives a *continuity* of structure. To employ "thematic treatment" in a music drama—i.e., to work up each musical idea in detail and then pass on to another, never to recur to the first—is as inartistic and absurd as in a pure or literary drama it would be to say all that is to be said about each *dramatis persona* in turn, and then dismiss him for good. This is the scientific, not the artistic method; and those who object to the *Leitmotiv*, therefore, show that they do not understand the very alphabet of the dramatic art. Finally, a word about the melody in "Tristan." To say that we have one continuous melody from the beginning to the end of each act is not a hyperbole but an understatement of the truth. The fact is, we usually hear several melodies at the same time. What Wagner says of Beethoven's music applies equally to his own: "In it there is nothing that is adventitious (*Zufall*), no framework for the melody, but everything becomes melody, every part of the accompaniment, every rhythmical note, yes, even the pause." And unless each of these melodic parts—which make Wagner's style truly polyphonic in every sense of the word—be played with intelligence and *con amore*, the hearer cannot say that he has heard one of his music-dramas, but only a parody of it. It is for this reason that a slovenly performance of "Tristan and Isolde" would be an intolerable bore, while after such a rendering of it as those in Munich few lovers of good music will fail to appreciate the enthusiasm of a friend of mine, who has written on the top of his piano-score: "Hear 'Tristan' and die."

THE PERGAMUS MARBLES.

BERLIN, March 24.

ALTHOUGH in your No. 765, of February 26, you have published two short paragraphs on the recently excavated Pergamus Marbles, the acquisition of this treasure by the Prussian Government and its exhibition in Berlin form so important a contribution to our knowledge of Greek art that I feel justified in entering more fully into the history of the great discovery.*

At the head of the gentlemen to whom this precious acquisition is due stands Mr. Humann, a civil engineer at Smyrna, a native of the town of Steele on the Ruhr, near Essen (of Krupp notoriety), who for years has built roads in Asia Minor for the Turkish Government. Mr. Humann studied in Berlin, and is an enthusiastic and competent connoisseur of Greek art. "My son," said old Humann, an innkeeper, "is one of those impractical fellows who do not care for making money, and go strolling abroad looking after antique, useless rubbish instead of trying to get a salaried office at home." While, about ten years ago, he was officially surveying the neighborhood of the place where old Pergamus stood, Mr. Humann discovered near the Acropolis of the former royal residence an old wall about twenty English feet thick. This wall he perceived at the first glance did not belong to the old Greek period, but was evidently erected as a makeshift against the inroads of barbarians, whether for the protection of the then still standing magnificent buildings of the Attalides or for self-defence by the old Greek and Roman inhabitants. Mr. Humann examined the wall more closely and found that it contained a great number of high reliefs, which had been used as a filling for the inside walls. In 1871 he presented some of these reliefs to our Museum. One of them is a fanciful animal, with well-preserved white scales under its throat, and a horse's neck; the other, a young giant with a beautiful face bearing resemblance to Alexander the Great, both first-class works of art.

At that time Dr. E. Curtius, our Greek historian, visited Asia Minor for some other scientific purposes, and was interested by Mr. Humann in the excavation of the Pergamus ruins. The attention of the Prussian Crown Prince, of the Minister of Public Instruction, of the Director of

* I beg to call your attention to a new work on Pergamus, to be published in a few weeks by the celebrated house of Grote of this city, giving fifteen engravings, representing the scenery and the places where the marbles were found, and an explanatory text by an archaeologist who has been on the spot.

the Museum, and of other prominent archaeologists was called to the important discovery. Diplomatic negotiations were consequently entered into with the Turkish Government, and led to a satisfactory result. Mr. Humann, like a true, disinterested patriot, offered his personal services in undertaking and prosecuting the work, which was thereupon entrusted to his care.

The fragments of the reliefs above alluded to proved that originally they had not belonged to the inside of a temple, but to the outside wall of a colossal altar. An obscure scribbler, by the name of Apellius, who, in the second century after Christ, compiled a little pamphlet on the "Mirabilia mundi," had particularly pointed out among the wonders of art a great marble altar at Pergamus, forty feet high, with grand statues and a battle of the gods with the giants ("cum maximis sculpturis continet autem gigantomachiam"). Moreover, Pausanias, the Murray and Baedeker of antiquity, incidentally mentions the altar of Pergamus, which, he says, somewhat resembles that of Olympia. Acting upon the descriptions here given, and upon the discovery of Mr. Humann, the directors of our Museum, with Messrs. Conze and Schoene at their head, resolved first to lay open the thick wall. In the summer of 1878 Mr. Humann finally received the order to commence his work. He did so on Monday, September 9, 1878, by beginning to pull down that part of the wall where he had found his first reliefs. On the evening of the second day Mr. Humann succeeded in extricating two reliefs, each about six feet long, which had been inserted face inward into the inner wall. Soon other works of art were found scattered about, and a solid fundamental marble base was discovered. On the evening of September 12 Mr. Humann telegraphed to Berlin: "Found eleven big reliefs, the greater part of which are full figures, thirty fragments, and the altar itself." A short time after the whole altar was laid open. It was a magnificent quadrangular structure, each side measuring one hundred feet, and stood in the open air, quite near the most prominent height of the Acropolis of Pergamus, and about 750 feet above the level of the sea.

The whole work of excavation did not quite occupy one year. In May, 1879, the group of the battle of Athene was discovered, and on July 21 the colossal group representing Zeus throwing his thunderbolt at a giant was restored to daylight by the descendant of one of those barbarians who had shared in the destruction of this masterpiece of antique art. Both these groups were found on the east side of the altar, where the heavy marbles had been torn from their place and had been used for building the poor huts of uncivilized tribes. The whole ground there is strewn with fragments of statues, relics of giants, and mutilated parts of gods. Only two stone steps of the old marble altar were left in place. Everything else was torn down, misplaced, cut to pieces, weather-beaten, and decayed. "In going over the ruins," says Mr. Conze, "we on the one hand feel proud that it has been our privilege to obtain this great treasure, and on the other hand are painfully impressed by the horrible devastation which has befallen this glorious grandeur."

Our men-of-war had been ordered to transport the marbles to Germany. The greater part of them have already been sent over, and about one hundred and twenty great boxes are still expected to arrive. The actual price paid for the whole is not much over \$6,000. The Prussian Government offered the Pasha 30,000 marks for his share, but the latter charged only so many francs, which made a difference of twenty per cent. in our favor. Never in the history of art has so trifling a sum been paid for so great a boon. It is intended to erect a public hall exclusively devoted to the exhibition of the Pergamus treasure. According to Alexander Conze, the director of the statuary in our Museum, the altar was erected by King Eumenes II. (197-159 B.C.), who expressed his thankfulness for his victories over the Gauls and other wild tribes by embellishing his capital with works of art. It was strictly in accordance with Greek custom that the feats of the king were symbolized by the battle of the gods with the giants, thus expressing the supremacy of idealism over materialism, and at the same time reminding the dynasty and the people by what heroic means Eumenes and his predecessor had broken the raids of the barbarians and secured the blessings of Hellenic culture to the small kingdom.

It will, of course, be several years before our artists and archaeologists will be able to reconstruct the plan and the execution of the whole. Mr. Bohn, a very competent architect, has been charged with the work. It is confidently expected that he will be able to reproduce the total aspect of the grand edifice in all the particulars of its elevation, while it is less probable that he will succeed in remodelling its ground-plan. It is, so to speak, a mighty palimpsest wherein the original characteristics must be deciphered from the bewildering formations of several thousand

years. When re-erected the altar will be forty feet high and four hundred feet in rectangular circumference. The steps and substructure are supposed to have been ten feet high, so that the principal frieze is seen by the beholder some ten feet above the ground. From there an inner marble staircase leads up to the offering altar, which is surrounded by a hall of columns, and around the offering altar itself runs the second smaller frieze, representing the history of the Attalides, and symbolizing the old Greek mythology.

For the present the marbles are in the east wing of the Museum, where since January they have twice a week been thrown open to the public. The collective sculptures represent, as you have already stated in your No. 765, the giants storming Olympus. Each of these groups portrays a moment in the struggle, and it is very fortunate that the two principal groups, those of Zeus and Athene, have been completely found and give an equal idea of the intention of the artist and of his masterly execution. Zeus was found on the eastern wall of the altar, and consequently represents the centre of interest. The upper part of the god is left bare. He fights against three giants, one of whom has been struck by his thunderbolt, while an eagle brings to Zeus a second bolt. Another giant's arm sinks down powerless, terror-stricken by the sight of the agis. The bodies of these winged giants end in dragons' legs, the extremities of which form a serpent's mouth. With their legs they entwine their enemies and with their serpent mouths they bite them.

Besides the minor gods assisting the superior gods there are beasts let loose against the giants, who have to defend themselves against these dogs or lions, which bite them in their necks or legs. On the other hand we see the dainty little foot of Artemis thrust into a giant's face. The embroideries of her sandals are as elegantly worked out as if yesterday they had left the Paris shoemaker's shop.

The Athene group is as full of life and action as the first-named. Her right hand catches a four-winged giant by the hair and drags him along, while her serpent encoils him. Another giant, whose face resembles that of Laocoon, sinks at the goddess's feet in the fangs of another of her serpents, and a third giant is threatening her; but Nike, the goddess of victory, is already crowning her with the laurel-wreath. To the left of Athene rises Ge, the mother of the giants, with loosened tresses, mourning over the destruction of her children, and resembling the celebrated statue of Niobe in the expression of her upturned face.

Besides these two principal groups there are several others of minor importance, and in single, disconnected blocks. In the last room there is to be seen Helios, the god of the sun, on his quadriga, Aurora preceding him and announcing his coming; a goddess riding on a lion, who draws an arrow from her quiver, while a woman rides ahead of her. There is in another corner another handsome woman, turning her back to the beholder; each limb of her body can be discerned through the folds of her wonderfully-chiselled gown. In another group, only part of which has as yet been recomposed, a majestic-looking goddess defends herself by throwing at her enemies a big vase covered with hissing serpents. At her feet lies the head of a Medusa, with terror and despair depicted in her face. It resembles the Medusa of the Villa Ludovisi in Rome, and proves that the latter, which was falsely attributed to the *cinqe cento*, must be of Pergamene origin. One of the finest specimens is the head of a beautiful woman with an ineffable smile on her finely-chiselled lips. The admirable realistic manner in which the artist handles his subject among others is best exemplified by the statue of a fat ogre with a bull's neck, into which a sword is pushed to its handle. Even the ugliness of this monster with its barbaric features has something sublime. The torso of a Poseidon resembles that of the Vatican; one of the finest torsi is an Apollo, whose beautifully-wrought body and limbs class it among the first productions of antique art. His arms and commanding attitude remind one of the celebrated Apollo Belvedere. The bodies in general are not smoothly worked out, but the marbles show every muscle and sinew, and every mark of the hammer. Some of the statues, which are almost all of more than life-size, have been freed from dust and dirt, and now appear to the best advantage, as for instance the full figure of a woman lying half on her side as if asleep. Our architects say that the marble used for the whole frieze of the altar is of a rougher quality than that found in other Greek and Roman sculptures. They suppose that it must have been from a quarry in the immediate neighborhood, the existence of which has hitherto been unknown to us.

Some features of the Pergamus treasures have as yet not been found in antique statuary. Thus, hair is not treated as a mass, but is carefully worked out on the head, on the breast, and under the armpits, and the same is the case with the eyebrows. The eyes were evidently

adorned with colored and precious stones. The artists, whose names are only partly given, combine the most fanciful invention with a perfect mastery of technicality and a sound realism; what they produce is not only executed in marble, but has been thought and conceived in marble, for which purpose they evidently were not in need of a model and did not use one. The great Renaissance masters appear somewhat inferior to the originators of these colossal groups; only Michelangelo, and of a later period our Schlueter, can bear any comparison with them. The other day a celebrated foreign connoisseur when looking at these marbles said "that every amateur and student of Greek art must henceforward not only see Greece and Italy, but must make a pilgrimage to Berlin to the Pergamus altar." Come and see! ? ?

Correspondence.

UNION OF THE INDEPENDENTS AGAINST GRANT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Differing somewhat from the views of one of your correspondents, published in your paper of April 1, I would offer a suggestion to the Independents. The important and vital evil against which they now contend is the proposed nomination of General Grant, believing it to represent the most serious dangers to the Republic—a third term, machine politics, corruption, and a distinct menace of force; for the utterances of his partisans are mere empty vaporings unless they mean that he will meet fraud—i.e., his failure to receive the Presidency by legal methods—by force. In these they recognize greater dangers to the perpetuity of our institutions than would be likely to ensue from the success of any other man or party.

Assuming that this correctly expresses their views so far, it would seem that they try to do too much when they declare against other candidates also. The Independents are as yet but a comparatively small body, and, operating within party lines, cannot expect to dictate the nomination. If they were compact, organized, and with recognized leaders certainly holding the balance of power between two great parties, they might perhaps insist on the nomination of one of two men, but could only hope for success because their solid support or opposition would be thrown according to the arrangement agreed on. When the contrary of this is true, and no man can speak for them or pledge in any given contingency their unanimous action, they cannot expect to do more than prevent the nomination of some one man against whom they are all agreed, and then only because, as to that, they have the unanimity which alone can give to their views the slightest weight with the practical politician, and because they draw to their support the adherents of all the other candidates.

If it be said that Mr. Blaine is only less dangerous than General Grant as a candidate, still it remains that he is *less* dangerous, and therefore Grant, and not he, is the one against whom the Independents should combine. Besides, the success of Mr. Blaine is so unlikely that it can be left out of the calculation. Probably no man can be nominated by the Chicago Convention, and certainly no Republican can be elected, without the support of Messrs. Conkling and Cameron. In their eyes it would seem that the chief end of government is the distribution of the offices, and in view of the political history of the Republican party it is difficult to see how, without intolerable humiliation to one or all of them, either of these gentlemen could have any control of the patronage under a Blaine administration. Under Grant they each would be practically President, so far as their own States are concerned, and herein probably lies the secret of their support of him; under almost any other man, with his own political friends and followers to provide for, they would only have "influence" more or less weighty; but still they would have a great deal. But under Blaine they could have none, certainly none of the absolute kind they would require to maintain their prestige among their followers. Hence Mr. Blaine, even if nominated, could hardly expect to escape defeat through their machinations; for it is to be remembered that, although the practical politician utterly condemns the man who votes as he pleases and refuses to yield blind allegiance to any party, yet he will, whenever able to, "knife"—i.e., secretly oppose and defeat—any candidate of his own party whose success would be a blow to his own political power.

Indeed, it may be said that the only way in which the Independents can practically give effect to their opposition to General Grant would be by emphatically declaring at the St. Louis or some other such meeting

that they as a body not only will not support him, but will support his opponent.

No mere expression of dissatisfaction will be likely to answer the purpose, for Conkling and his coadjutors care little for protests so long as the voter votes the ticket; as you once said, "they care not how much they squeal if they don't bolt"; but such a declaration as that proposed, made by men who have heretofore contributed to Republican successes, might prevent the nomination of Grant by rendering his election so doubtful that the rank and file would become intractable and refuse to be led into so doubtful a contest. Besides it would render difficult of accomplishment the bargain alleged to have been made between Conkling and Kelly to deliver New York to the Republicans; certainly Mr. Kelly would find it hard work to control his followers when a victory for their own party would be so plainly within their grasp by availing themselves of the defection among the Republicans.

Public opinion, like the tide, changes gradually, and if the Independents ever unite in some practical action, and make themselves sufficiently felt in 1880 to prevent one nomination, they may reasonably hope by 1884 to be able actively to influence another. Their numbers are growing, their utterances as to the necessity of civil-service reform and what that reform consists in are becoming daily more impressed on the public mind, but it remains to be seen whether they can become sufficiently united to affect the impending political campaign. P.

PHILADELPHIA, April 3, 1880.

INDIAN RESERVATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In considering the causes of that antagonism undoubtedly existing between the Western people and the Indians sufficient stress has never been laid upon the hardships imposed upon the settlers by the reservation system. The withdrawal of the land from settlement might be borne, even though the quantity be altogether out of proportion to the number of Indians; that is the least part of the grievance. Throughout the West are scattered numerous tracts of land as much forbidden soil to the Caucasian as if they were so many little Chinese Empires. If you try to cross, the agent may summon his Indian police or a squad of soldiers and put you off ignominiously. If you attempt to drive a herd of cattle across on your way to market, to save a distance of a hundred miles, the agent may turn you back and impose a heavy fine on you.

A few facts about the Crow reservation will show the care and tenderness with which the Government has fostered the settlement of the Western Territories. This reservation was established by the Laramie treaty in 1868. It embraces about ten thousand square miles between the Yellowstone River and the northern boundary of Wyoming. At a very liberal estimate, there may be five hundred men among the Crows who could take up a homestead under the land laws to which white men are subject. They are, therefore, each allotted twenty square miles, or eighty times the quantity permitted to a citizen. This reservation embraces the mining region on the Upper Yellowstone, where settlements had been made in 1864, and at the time of the treaty several hundred citizens were living there. From that day the threat of an ejection has been hanging over these men, making permanent improvements and expensive mining development out of the question. In all these years I do not think a single Indian has visited this part of the reservation.

Prior to this treaty the road into eastern Montana ran direct from Cheyenne to Bozeman. The establishment of this reservation threw a barrier two hundred miles long across this road, and closed it. We could not go around this barrier. On the east it was closed by hostile Sioux, on the west by impassable mountains. Since then we have, therefore, been compelled to go *east* by first going one hundred miles *west*, thence four hundred miles south, crossing the Rocky Mountains, and, after travelling five hundred miles, finding ourselves no nearer our goal than at our starting point. The Northern Pacific Railroad, now building up the Yellowstone Valley, wishes to cross the river at several points, to avoid steep, rugged bluffs abutting on the north bank of the stream; but the Laramie treaty says, No admittance, and, unless a new treaty can be made, the company will have to build its line along the north bank all the way, at a heavy additional expense.

Eastern philanthropists may think that these things are all right, and that we ought to be punished for helping to build up the West; but that view will hardly be taken by the average human mind if the facts are once brought before it. The Indian has rights to be respected; but so has the white man. It is not in human nature to submit to wrongs except under

compulsion. As long as the reservation system is continued in its present form there can be no peace between the Westerner and the Indian. Agitation in one form or another will continue until the reservations are broken up, the Indians given a reasonable amount of land in severalty (inalienable for a term of years, when desirable), and the laws of the country extended over all, red and white alike.

P. KOCU.

BOZEMAN, M. T., March 27, 1880.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

[We have received from the Editor of *Harper's Magazine*, with permission to print, the following letter. As will be seen, it possesses a general interest. Its publication, we understand, has been deferred in the hope of obtaining something final from Col. Chester.—ED. NATION.]

SIR: My attention has been called to an article which appeared in your March number [1879], describing a visit to the "English Home of the Washingtons"—viz., Brington, in Northamptonshire—most agreeably and accurately written by your contributor, and referring throughout continually to a book called 'The Washingtons,' published by me in England in 1860.

In that book I had gathered together some particulars of the Northamptonshire family of that name who had been pointed out in 1791 by Sir Isaac Heard, the then Garter King-at-Arms, as the ancestors of your great President—a conclusion accepted by the President himself, and received without a doubt by his biographers in America as well as by genealogists and topographers in this country. And, never dreaming that there could be any doubt on this point, I felt great satisfaction in adding to what was known of the emigrant and his immediate relations from what could be gleaned in the country parish of which I was then rector, and in dwelling on their connection with the noble family of the Spencers.

My book met with a kind reception from the venerable Jared Sparks, and was favorably noticed in the *North American Review*, and by Mr. Palfrey in his 'History of New England.' I was asked, too, to repeat the substance of it at a great breakfast given by the American residents in London on the anniversary of Washington's birthday in 1862. The terrible contest, however, which soon after broke out in America made men indifferent to such small matters, and it is only of late that Americans have again begun to show much interest in "the English home of the Washingtons."

Meanwhile great doubts were thrown upon the pedigree which Sir I. Heard was supposed to have authenticated. These doubts were first formulated by your distinguished countryman Col. J. L. Chester, a gentleman unrivalled and unapproachable in his own departments of genealogy, and who in his *magnum opus*, the 'Register of Westminster Abbey' (undertaken at the request of Dean Stanley and the Chapter), has recently conferred upon the English nation a gift of imperishable value for future historians and biographers.

Col. Chester, whom I am proud to call my friend, by the aid of parish registers, marriage licenses, probates of wills, records of lawsuits, and other miscellaneous documents, of which he has so extraordinary a knowledge, proceeded to challenge Sir I. Heard's conclusions respecting the emigrant brothers John and Lawrence Washington, and in a paper which he contributed in 1866 to the *English Herald and Genealogist* succeeded in showing incontestably that the two persons who had been designated as the emigrants really died and were buried on English ground. Unacceptable as these conclusions were to me, I could not possibly resist them. They were all the more mortifying because drawn by the assailant, in some measure, from the additional particulars which I myself had brought to light respecting the Northants family. "Meo mihi gladio me jugulavit."

That much, then, is certain; and I am surprised that it is not universally known in America among those who take an interest in the matter. In the same month as that in which your own article appeared, a letter of Col. Chester's was published in the *New York World* briefly recapitulating the facts he had established in 1866, and holding out (I am glad to add) fresh hopes of being able to substitute some positive conclusions for those which he has demolished; for he is not the man to rest content with negative and destructive evidence, and, while elucidating other difficult points in genealogy, he has never ceased to keep this leading object steadily before him. It is his determination, however, not to put forth the mass of materials he has collected bearing on this subject

till he is sure of his ground; and this determination on his part must seal also the lips of those of his friends to whom he has in confidence shown some of the documents in his possession.

I hope I am not saying too much, under the circumstances, in adding that some of these documents seemed to me to supply strong presumptive proof that the emigrants would be found, after all, to have sprung from the Northamptonshire stock, though of a generation below that which was erroneously pointed out. In this case Brington and Sulgrave would not lose their interest to Americans. How far Col. Chester would endorse my opinion I cannot, of course, say; but, as he tells us himself in his letter to the *World*, his chief dependence is now placed on a deed which has recently come into his possession, relating to and signed by a certain John Washington, whom he believes to have been the emigrant and the great-grandfather of the President.

I have the honor to be, sir, yours faithfully,

J. N. SIMPSON.

NORTH CREAKE RECTORY, NORFOLK, May 23, 1879.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have begun with 'Knickerbocker's New York' a "Geoffrey Crayon Edition" of Irving's works, to be completed in twenty-six volumes. The first is beautifully printed, and in addition to the designs, of various periods, by Allston, Cruikshank, Heath, Darley, Hopkin, etc., some brand-new ones by Church, executed in the present style of engraving, are introduced. The edition will be as cheap as it is elegant. The same publishers have issued in pamphlet form Dr. H. W. Bellows's discourse on "Channing—His Opinions, Genius, and Character," delivered at the centenary (April 7) in Newport.—The American Unitarian Association, Boston, have prodigally brought out in a dollar volume the well-known Life of Dr. Channing by his nephew, abridged to the extent of nearly one-third of the original, which appeared in three volumes. An autotype portrait is prefixed. The printed page is condensed but easily read.—Mr. John Russell Young's 'Around the World with General Grant' (New York: American News Co.) has just been concluded by the issuing of Parts 19 and 30. The work has been noticeable in its progress for its typographical excellence and for the abundance and substantial quality of its wood-cut illustrations. The last number reports an interesting conversation on the Vicksburg campaign.—B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 12 and 13 of the new edition of Stieler's Modern Atlas, with sheet-maps of Italy, half the Mediterranean basin, Denmark, Russia, etc., with the usual accompaniment of side-maps. They have also received Parts 11-16 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' published by Grote, of Berlin, one of the most beautifully printed and judiciously (even if somewhat capriciously) illustrated works of the kind, to say nothing of its authoritative value. These parts bring the history of ancient Rome down to the death of Sulla, and the reigns of Louis XIV. and of Peter the Great nearly to their close, and begin the history of India. The French portions are particularly rich in engravings and fac-similes. To mention only the portraits, we have Mazarin, Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Lafontaine, Le Sage, Molière, Fénelon, Bossuet, James II., and Queen Anne of England, Marlborough, Prince Eugene, Vauban, Locke, Leibnitz, Spinoza, Mme. de Maintenon, etc. The Indian illustrations of temples are very fine.—The preliminary pages and appendix of the 'American Catalogue' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) now enable the first volume to be bound. Constant reference to this invaluable work increases our sense of its utility. It is a worthy monument of American intelligence and industry.—Charles Scribner's Sons promise during the spring a complete collection of the poems of Mr. Richard Henry Stoddard. From Scribner & Co. we have the nineteenth bound volume of their *Monthly*, which has been signalized by the conclusion of Mr. James's "Confidence," the beginning of Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes," of Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great," and of the instructive extracts from the journal of the late Henry J. Raymond.—J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Jackson's Valley Campaign' (1861-62), by Lieutenant-Colonel William Allan, with maps of the region and battle-fields by Captain Jed. Hotchkiss; and 'The United States Government: its Organization and Practical Workings,' by George N. Lamphere.—Part 6 of the second volume of Mrs. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York' enters upon the period after the establishment of the peace of 1783. It has among its illustrations several rarities, the most curious being Benj. West's unfinished study in oil of the peacemakers, and a portrait of David Hartley, the British Minister Plenipotentiary.—No. III. of the Occasional

Papers of the Boston Society of Natural History is a stout octavo pamphlet of 286 pp., with a colored map, entitled 'Contributions to the Geology of Eastern Massachusetts.' The work is marked by thoroughness and originality, and is based upon researches for which exceptional opportunities were afforded.—Mr. John P. Soule, 338 Washington Street, Boston, Mass., sends us evidences of the increase of his now very extensive collection of photographic reproductions of works of art which we described in No. 759 of the *Nation*. An enumeration of them will show their variety: Great Pyramid and Sphinx; Court of Lions, Alhambra; Michelangelo's "Cumæan Sibyl" and "Ezekiel"; Guido Reni's "Aurora"; Tintoretto's "Minerva Driving Back Mars"; Velasquez's "Æsop"; Raphael's "Sistine Madonna," and boys from the cartoon of "Paul and Barnabas"; Veronese's "Moderation"; Murillo's "St. Anthony of Padua"; Holbein's "Erasmus"; the new Hermes from Olympia, etc.—all from nature or the canvas or marble. The size of the largest does not exceed 5x4 inches.—In anticipation of the tourist season the Messrs. Rivington have brought out new editions of 'Recollections of Ober-Ammergau in 1871,' by H. N. Oxenham, and of the Rev. Malcolm MacColl's 'Ober-Ammergau Passion-Play' (New York: Pott, Young & Co.) The latter work contains in the appendix a continuous and orderly description of the scenes and tableaux of the play. The new preface gives the calendar of this year's representations, from May to September inclusive, with the names of the chief *dramatis personæ*. It states that the new, mainly uncovered theatre will seat 4,500 persons, and that the railroad is within three hours' drive of Ober-Ammergau, which is, moreover, now connected by telegraph with the rest of the world.—For the benefit of Americans going abroad this summer, we will mention, apropos of our Munich letter on another page, that "Tristan and Isolde" is announced for performance in June at Leipzig and also at Hamburg, where a complete cycle of Wagner's works is to be given. Probably it will also be repeated at Munich during the course of the theatre festival in July.—A new impression from the plates of Dr. C. J. Hempel's edition of 'Schiller's Complete Works,' translated into English, has been made by the publisher, I. Kohler, 911 Arch Street, Philadelphia. The work is in two large octavo volumes of some 1,300 pages altogether, double column, with illustrations, and embraces the best version of Schiller's varied writings procurable twenty years ago. The price is moderate.—Among recent French announcements are two of interest to Americans. The first is 'La Jeunesse de Fanny Kemble, d'après ses Mémoires,' by Mme. Aug. Craven, author of the 'Récit d'une Sœur.' The second is 'Récits d'un Humoriste,' adapted from the English of Mr. John Habberton, by Williams L. Hughes, whose previous adaptation from the same American author, 'Les Bébés d'Hélène,' has been illustrated by Bertall, and is advertised as an "ouvrage adopté par le Ministère de l'Instruction Publique"—which goes to show to what straits the purveyors of juvenile literature are put in France.

—The Cincinnati Public Library continues to extend its operations, and the number of its catalogues increases. In December a second branch was opened at Columbia with 4,000 volumes; the catalogue of the books, a brief list, has 20 pp. Both this and the Cumminsville branch, though their circulation is enlarging, are in their day of small things, and we believe either of them reckons its registered borrowers within a thousand. The connection of both with the main library by the telephone enlarges their resources by the contents of the general library, as has been the case for some time in Boston. Another catalogue of 64 pp. enumerates the works treating of anatomy, physiology, hygiene (public and private), botany, chemistry, microscopy, and physics, and forms part of a catalogue of works relating to medicine and allied sciences. With physics is included naturally, though somewhat remotely allied to medicine, mechanics. This is the most elaborate piece of classification yet published by the library, and appears to have the merits of fulness and much painstaking. Another catalogue of 67 pp. is a "Subject-index to the location of the books and pamphlets in the library," principally for the benefit of the attendants, and perhaps it should be said of a library so far uncatalogued, as regards the accessibility of the catalogue to the public, that the public must depend upon the attendants for the knowledge of the library's contents. It is an alphabetical statement of subjects into which the books are divided on the shelves, with the numbers of the books, but with no mention of the authors included. The consolidated monthly bulletins for the year 1879 make a bulky volume of 292 pp., 34 of which give an alphabetical index of authors of anonymous works, and one an index of subjects. These bulletins, like their predecessors, have the merit of large type, full titles, and a careful collation of pages, and form undoubtedly the most indispensable catalogue that Cincinnati pub-

lishes. We doubt whether the experiment of publishing special classified lists of all the books in a library growing at the rate of eight or ten thousand volumes a year, and at present containing only about 130,000 volumes and pamphlets, is likely to be altogether satisfactory. Department catalogues of a rapidly-growing library are superseded too soon, and a large part of the library is catalogued too slowly. If the monthly bulletins are full and consolidated like those of Cincinnati for 1878 and 1879, with a fair classification of their contents, and the library once in five years or so publishes a brief list of all its books with a large conspectus of subjects, we should think it would be better catalogued, and its resources would be enlarged for the purchase of books.

—The 'Théâtre de Campagne' and the series of 'Saynètes et Monologues' continue to grow; the latest issues are the sixth volume of the first and the fifth and sixth of the second. M. Legouvé, who originally introduced the 'Théâtre de Campagne' to the public, prefaces this volume with a letter in which he compliments the publisher on his energy and success, and points out that ten or a dozen of the little pieces which first saw the light in this series have since stood the more serious test of the actual theatre. It is not likely, however, that any of the plays in the present volume will be borrowed by the regular stage; they are all altogether too slight. In the other collection as well a decided falling off in merit is to be noticed. In no one of the three volumes is there anything by M. Labiche, M. Gondinet, or M. Meilhac. In the 'Théâtre de Campagne' nothing rises above mediocrity except "Un Crâne sous une tempête," a most original little dialogue—if a piece can be so called in which one of the two characters can say nothing, so fierce is the Caudle lecture which overwhelms him. Its author, M. Dreyfus, seems to have a refreshing originality of his own; his "Après la Noce," in the fifth volume of the other series, although good, is less individual. The best thing in 'Saynètes et Monologues' is "Un Caissier," by MM. Gill and Richard. This is a dialogue for two men only, of the robustly funny and frankly farcical type—not unlike the perennial "Box and Cox." In all three volumes there are far too many monologues, and these are no longer really dramatic; most of them are merely recitations, whereas the true monologue is a play in which there is only one part. To write a good one is no easy task, and from an examination of those in these volumes it seems as though the field were well-nigh exhausted. Morally, these latest issues do not differ greatly from the earlier; they are harmless now, even if a little more insipid. The writer in a recent number of *Lippincott's* who asked for plays for women only will find at least two plays in these volumes meeting this requirement; but neither is of great interest.

—"The Way We Live" was brought out at Daly's last Saturday evening with considerable success. It is "based on the German" and "arranged" by Augustin Daly, and in its American form is a satire upon New York society. What sort of satire it is may best be understood by a brief analysis of the plot. *Major Sidney Lincoln* is a middle-aged bachelor whose habit of constantly wearing his uniform is a slight indication of his sincerity and excellence of character. In his house lives his sister, a vulgar and malicious widow, who recompenses his kindness by making his life a burden in a variety of ways. Another member of the household is *Miss Langley*, a young, innocent, and unworldly maiden, whose mother was once beloved by the honest major. The disparity between the ages of the *Major* and *Miss Langley*—some thirty-three years—is not sufficient to prevent the elder of the pair from becoming passionately attached to the younger, nor the younger from secretly returning his affection. Their love-story has so little to do with the rest of the plot that it may be just as well to say here that they are in the end happily united. In contrast with the manly *Major* and the modest *Harriet* we have the follies and foibles of a number of people belonging to our best society, and particularly *Mr. and Mrs. Clyde Monogramme*, the husband being a substantial leather merchant and the wife an ambitious young woman of fashionable tastes, who spends her time in useless charities and neglects her child, husband, and home. She is pursued by *Mr. Frederick Van Schaick*, a young Lothario, whose part, whatever it may be in German, is very ridiculous in English; but she is never really in danger. In the second act we have the interior of the *Monogramme* household, with the boy *Georgie* (very well played by Miss Waters) and his motherless condition, for a pathetic *milieu*. Of course the desertion of a child by its mother for fashionable charity is a distressing idea, and this scene, with a slightly different management, might be made very affecting. The difficulty is that Mr. Daly understands farce better than pathos, and has made the boy's rehearsal of his spelling-lesson so laughable that the full

effect of the situation is lost. The second act, however, is the best of the play. The third act, in which there is a meeting of the charitable ladies presided over by *Mrs. Monogramme*, is decidedly amusing. In the end, *Mrs. Monogramme's* domestic instincts are revived by jealousy of a governess, and by this slight means is effected a happy reunion of the household. *Mrs. Monogramme* herself, acted by Miss Rehan, is the best character in the play, and the part is well played throughout. The acting of the slight though difficult part of *Fanny Martin* by Miss Georgine Flagg was also good. The dialogue is bright, and the satire, after Mr. Daly's wont, made plain to the dullest comprehension. Perhaps the best "local hit"—at any rate, the hit which the audience seemed most thoroughly to appreciate—was the heartfelt regret expressed by *Mrs. Van Schaijk* that her husband had not lived "till the market recovered." The fourth act dragged on Saturday night, but this was partly owing to the fact that it was a "first night." Since the custom of making a "first night" a distinct theatrical event at all the leading theatres in New York has become fixed, would it not be worth while for managers to make a point of having the parts thoroughly known? Curiously enough, on "first nights" here the audience is always the best and the play the worst. The custom, of course, comes from Paris, where the drama is a living institution, and where a new play by Sardou or Dumas is an important aesthetic occurrence. But the production of a play "based" on another play by a local manager derives almost its only value from the excellence of its execution, and this ought to be insisted on by audiences here more than it is.

—The usual extra and benefit concerts which occur towards the end of the musical season were begun this year by a benefit concert tendered by a number of leading musicians to Mr. Franz Rummel, who three months ago met with a serious accident in Providence, R. I., and has thus been prevented of late from being heard in public. Mr. Rummel, who first came to this country last winter, gained in a short time a large circle of friends and admirers by his remarkable qualities. No other pianist since Rubinstein's departure and Joseffy's arrival has created so favorable an impression among amateurs. The programme of the concert was attractive and the list of the assisting artists contained the names of popular favorite. The most interesting numbers were a concerto for four pianos by Bach, with double string quartet accompaniment. The pianoforte part was effectively rendered by Miss Copleston and Messrs. Von Inten, Duleken, and Rummel. A pianoforte quintet by Rubinstein was the most powerful number on the programme. Vocal and instrumental solos of a popular character were given by Mrs. Swift, Miss Henne, and Messrs. Fritsch, Del Puente, Adolphe Fischer, and other well-known artists.—Mr. Arnold, the first violin-player of the New York Philharmonic Club, gave a concert of miscellaneous character, on Saturday night, in Chickering Hall. The chief feature of the evening was a sextet for string instruments by Anton Dvorak in A major, Op. 48, which was played for the first time in this country. It is a bright and interesting composition. The first movement, an *allegro moderato*, is full of clear, pleasing melodies and charming modulations. As we remarked when reviewing two orchestral *suities* by the same composer which have been performed during the present season by Mr. Thomas and Dr. Damrosch, Dvorak's subjects are neither powerful nor very original, but they are graceful and sure to please at a first hearing. The second movement, *Elegy*, followed by a charming little *adagio*, is perhaps the most impressive of the whole work. It is followed by a spirited *scherzo* (*furiat presto*) of great technical difficulties, which were excellently rendered by Mr. Arnold and his associates. The finale is a pretty, quaint air, with variations.—Mr. Lavine's annual concerts in Steinway Hall are generally above the average of that class of performances. The fifth of his concerts, which took place on Monday last, was even better than those of preceding years. Besides some excellent soloists, Mr. Lavine had engaged Mr. Thomas, who, with a small but very select orchestra, gave a capital performance of Cherubini's overture, "Les Abencérages," and some other interesting orchestral numbers, among which Liszt's magnificent instrumentation of the immortal *Adagio Cantabile* from Beethoven's Pianoforte Trio in B flat, Op. 97, was decidedly the most effective.

—The Italian opera brought out nothing new last week. Col. Mapleson announced at his benefit, amidst the heartiest applause, that he had concluded arrangements with Mme. Gerster and Mme. Christine Nilsson for their appearance in New York in the coming fall, and that new contracts had been signed with Messrs. Campanini, Del Puente, and Gaiassini, and, last but not least, with Signor Arditi.—The last concert of the

New York Philharmonic Club introduced a programme of decided merit which was excellently rendered. In reviewing the work of the year the club may be congratulated upon a marked improvement both in their selections and in their style of playing. Their ensemble is in every respect more vigorous and more finely shaded than last year. Their selections were vastly superior to those of former seasons.

—Karl Emil Franzos, after Sacher-Masoch the most conspicuous of the small group of German writers known as "Turgeneff's Disciples," has just published an interesting study on the history of German surnames, especially those of Jews. The difference between the names of German Christians and German Jews is due to the circumstance that those borne by the latter were, to a large extent, decreed to the ancestors of the present bearers by the Government. It is well known that a century ago the Jews of Eastern Europe, as other eastern nations are still, were without family names. "Isaac the son of Jacob" serving every social and, among themselves, business purpose. When, then, a government required a list of its subjects with a view to military duty and a poll-tax, the cases of mistaken identity must, under this system, have been inconveniently numerous. In 1782-83, therefore, shortly after the incorporation of the provinces of Galicia and Bukowina, the Austrian War Department received orders to provide the inhabitants of these districts with family names, beginning with the Jews. The countries were divided into districts, for each of which a commission was appointed with instructions to journey from place to place, and to force upon each male married Jew the choice of a name. In case any one refused to choose, the commission was to select a name for him. The announcement of the decree caused a panic among many of the emperor's Jewish subjects, but there was no possibility of nonconformity. So great was their abhorrence to joining a "heathen" name to their own "holy" and traditional one that to this day many an orthodox Jew never uses his legal surname when it can be avoided. This aversion would, in many instances, be justified even if there were no religious reason for it; for the instructions given the commissions forbade at once the repetition of the same name in a given district, and the choice of common German names such as Schulze or Müller. As the source of most of his illustrations Herr Franzos has selected the journal of a commission for its sitting in the town of X. The first Jew called refuses to choose a name, and thereupon receives that of Weinstein, because in the places in which the commission had already sat the names of all stones and metals, domestic animals, flowers, mountains, and valleys had been chosen. The next Jew called received the name Blaustein, the third Grünstein, the fourth Steingrün, the fifth Steinblau, etc. These names are neither ugly nor disagreeably suggestive, but sometimes the commissioners were facetious and gave names like Küssmich and Misthaufen, which, the writer states, are still represented by well-to-do families. The great-grandfather of Franzos himself lived till 1770 in Nancy, where he was called Levert (*i. e.*, Levi). In that year he went to Podolia, where he founded a wax candle factory, being known among his Polish countrymen as "der Franzos." Accordingly, when required to choose a name, he answered that it was unnecessary to do so, for his family had for centuries borne that of Levert. "That's not true," was the official answer; "Jews have no family names." "But I came from France," was the reply; "the people here call me the Frenchman." "Then I call you Franzos too," answered the commissioner, and protestation was of no avail.

—In the recent death at St. Petersburg of Dr. Anton Schiefner, at the age of sixty-three, philological science has lost one of its ablest and most indefatigable workers. He was born in the city of Reval, studied law in St. Petersburg, went to Berlin in 1842, where his taste for linguistic, especially oriental, studies was formed, returned to St. Petersburg, where he taught for some time in one of its public schools, and was finally elected a member and librarian of the St. Petersburg Academy. To his literary industry he left numerous monuments, but as his name is not extensively known in this country we avail ourselves of Prof. Max Müller's obituary notice in the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes*. At a time when the languages of the Caucasian provinces were of great interest to the Russian Government, Schiefner published (1856-1864) grammatical treatises on no less than six idioms. When the great northern traveller Castrén died, leaving unpublished his "Nördliche Reisen und Forschungen," Schiefner found time to publish this work. His remarkable industry and wonderful linguistic knowledge are further demonstrated by a glance at the six grammars of as many different tongues of the Russian Empire published by him between 1854 and 1858. Nor should it be forgotten that Schiefner published in 1852 the only German translation we have of the celebrated Finnish epic, 'Kalevala,' a work containing 22,793 verses, divided into

fifty *runot* or cantos; and in 1859, also in German, 'Die Heldenlieder der Nimsinischen Tartaren.' But, meritorious as all these works are, they are by no means the chief basis of his reputation. His most lasting fame was achieved in his study of the Thibetan language and literature. The Hungarian Csoma de Kőrös first, in the year 1832, made the Thibetan language and literature accessible to European scholars, but Schiefner continued Csoma's work and brought out treasure after treasure from the rich Thibetan mines. He edited Vasilieff's 'Buddhismus' in 1860, and in the columns of the *Mélanges Asiatiques* he published a large number of translations of Thibetan religious literature, especially from the 'Kanjor,' a work containing in the original one hundred volumes. These translations from the canonical books of Buddhism give us quaint and primitive forms of fables and stories which have been carried into various countries by Buddhist priests and missionaries.

THE ARMY AND THE INDIANS.*

MR. MANYPENNY'S book is perhaps the most important contribution to the discussion of the vexed "Indian question" which has yet appeared. His own qualifications for writing it are of a high order. He was Commissioner of Indian Affairs during the whole of Mr. Pierce's Administration, and has ever since continued his familiarity with the history of the Indian tribes. A Democrat in politics and for many years editor of a leading political paper in Ohio, he had retired from active participation in public affairs till he was invited by President Hayes to take the chairmanship of the committee appointed under an act of Congress to treat with the Sioux in 1876. He is, therefore, free from any suspicion of political bias in favor of the civil administrations of the past twenty years, and may be considered as nearly impartial as any civilian can be.

It is necessary to bear in mind these personal relations of the author to parties and to the subject under investigation, because his book is really an arraignment of the Army in its dealings with the Indian tribes, although that purpose does not appear in the title-page. What may be considered the main proposition of the work is more general than this, for it asserts, what every candid investigator has been forced to admit, that the disturbances with the Indians, from the first white settlement on the continent till the present day, have been traceable to the aggressions of the civilized settlers. The long list of treaties made only to be broken, of dedications of territory to perpetual Indian use only to have it trespassed upon by squatters, of the unending repetitions of requests to the red men to "move on," each move being under the most solemn assurances that now a lasting home was secured for them—all this is brought out with great vigor, and a most humiliating picture is drawn of a Government powerful only in wronging weak tribes and never strong enough or willing to interpose firmly between the Indians and the encroachments of settlers and miners. Though all this is not new, it is presented with new force; and by making a continuous history of Indian affairs for two and a half centuries Mr. Manypenny has given cumulative effect to the shameful series of frauds and wrongs which constitutes the history of our dealings with the aborigines, the half-century of Quaker rule in Pennsylvania being the only period on which a just mind can linger with any satisfaction or comfort.

The novel feature of the book is, as we have said, its impeachment of the Army. The constantly-recurring debate over the question of transferring the Indians to army management is no doubt the cause of this treatise; and whether Mr. Manypenny's positions shall prove to be solidly supported or not, so able and fearless a discussion of the subject must be of great use in helping us to reach right conclusions. Silent contempt will be no answer to such an argument. The author and his work are of a calibre to enforce respect, and unless a more thorough and able handling than his own can be made to show that his criticism of the Army in its Indian work is unjust, his summing up of the facts must be expected to go far towards fixing public opinion. Mr. Manypenny fully recognizes the fact that officers of the Army have often been among the most useful and sincere friends of the Indian; but he separates the case of these from the general army spirit and policy as he finds it exhibited in the events of long periods taken together. He estimates the proportion of just men among army officers in dealing with the Indians to be about the same as those among frontier settlers, and asserts that the history shows that the military men have fully shared the feelings and the prejudices of the frontier. He asserts that they have been hasty and unjust in determining when Indians were hostile and in making war upon them. He

alleges that in their war-making they have been cruel and even barbarous, wantonly slaughtering women and children, and permitting the soldiers to imitate the practices of the savages themselves.

If these were vague accusations or merely declamatory charges, we should not refer to them as needing serious notice; but they are supported by an array of apparently authenticated facts, and by the analysis of the origin of war after war, of such a sort as to make a very formidable indictment, to which a cool and well-considered reply should be made, if reply is possible. To show that Mr. Manypenny does not stop at subordinates in his strictures, it is only necessary to notice some of the points made in his criticism. He charges, for instance, that the site of Leavenworth was seized in open violation of treaty stipulations, under the eye and with the direct assistance and protection of the military commander stationed there. He charges that General Hancock, in 1867, made war upon the Kiowas and Comanches when they were living peaceably according to their treaty stipulations, the General taking the assertions of a few unprincipled scoundrels as proof that the Indians had begun hostilities. In support of this he quotes the report of the Peace Commission of 1868, of which General Sherman was the head. He charges that General Carleton had previously (in 1862) adopted barbarous methods of dealing with the Apaches, ordering no flags of truce to be recognized, no surrenders received, but "all Indian men to be killed whenever and wherever you can find them." The policy of extermination is declared to be plainly avowed in Carleton's despatches to his superiors. He charges that General Sheridan refused an interview which the Indians requested at Fort Dodge in 1868, or to hear their story in regard to the failure to fulfil the treaties with them, though they were in extreme destitution; yet he accepted the irresponsible statements of interested parties as a basis for reporting officially that "these Indians require to be soundly whipped, the ringleaders in the present trouble hung, their ponies killed, and such destruction of their property made as will render them very poor." He alleges that the proof is now complete that the Cheyenne village of Black Kettle was in no respect hostile when it was attacked, and its inhabitants of both sexes and all ages nearly exterminated under Sheridan's orders. He reviews Colonel Baker's attack upon the Piegiens with the same damaging conclusions which the Indian Commission under Mr. Brunot reached. He asserts that the invasion of the Black Hills country was in open violation of treaty, and was instigated by the military officers on the frontier; that the troubles which followed, including the destruction of a Cheyenne village under the chief "Hump," were caused by wanton aggression on our side, as was the war with Sitting Bull, made terribly memorable by the fate of Custer and his command. He analyzes also the evidence in the case of the destruction of Dull Knife's band of Cheyennes, who were starved at Fort Robinson, lured into an attempt to escape, and killed to the last man. He insists that the official correspondence shows that from the highest officers of the Army downward the responsibility for a wrong and cruel policy must be shared, and that, either avowedly or impliedly, their general aim has been the speedy extermination of the Indians.

All this being supported by so skilful an array of documentary evidence, it is impossible to read it without feeling that it can only be satisfactorily answered by some one as familiar with the internal history of the Army and its affairs as he is with the details of the Indian administration. But Mr. Manypenny seems to us to fail to draw with sufficient clearness the line between the treatment of a savage enemy in open war and in the ordinary administration of affairs near a military post. Many an officer who might sincerely desire to save and to improve the Indian might also hold with sincerity the opinion that when once hostilities are begun no quarter could properly be given. That such theories tend to abuse and to cruelty is undoubtedly true, and this book is a challenge to the discussion of the subject which should be accepted without reserve, and with a purpose of clearly understanding and defining the duty of civilized soldiers in dealing with such tribes as still remain within our borders.

The general topic of the relations of the nation to the aborigines is one of the hopeless things which constantly attract and as constantly baffle attempts at solution. All struggles between different races are guided by prejudice and passion more than by reason. The foreigner is always wrong, and nearly as much so in the eyes of an Englishman or an American as in those of the Chinese. We quickly hear and know of an Indian raid on the frontiersman's cabin. We do not hear of the aggressions upon reservations, the robbery and murder of Indians, and of all the other crimes which investigation has shown to be the constant antecedents of Indian wars. To this day we thrill with the story of the Mo-

* 'Our Indian Wards. By George W. Manypenny, Commissioner of Indian Affairs from March, 1853, until March, 1857, and Chairman of the Sioux Commission of 1876.' Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 18vo, pp. 436.

hawk attack upon Schenectady, but we read with composure of Captain Mason's slaughter of the Pequods. De Tocqueville seems to have touched the root of the matter when he said that as between such races the alternative is amalgamation or separation, and separation generally means extermination of a weaker race. Yet it is none the less an imperative duty to expose all the wickedness of our national methods of dealing with poor and dependent tribes. The book before us does not attempt to point out a remedy. Its scope is limited to a bold exposure of what the author believes to be the proved facts.

RUSSIA AND ENGLAND.*

THIS book is attracting considerable attention in London on account of its authorship. O. K. is a Russian lady resident in London, and a member of the family of the Kiréeffs. Her brother, Nicholas Kiréeff, was the first of the Russian volunteers killed during the Servian war, and this book reveals that O. K. is a person inspired with the same enthusiasm as that which impelled her brother to a hero's grave. She has been deeply touched by the miseries endured by the Slavs in bondage to the Turk, but has also perceived that the only obstacle to their speedy emancipation is the hatred and suspicion of Russia which prevail in England. To this hatred and suspicion the bloody Russo-Turkish war was entirely due: from the same ignoble causes the area of emancipated land secured by the Treaty of San Stefano was much curtailed by the Treaty of Berlin; and unless they can be removed, every advance towards the liberation of those people still groaning under Turkish tyranny must be made through a sea of blood. To bring about a better understanding, then, between Russia and England is the object which O. K. has set before herself, and she possesses at least one qualification indispensable for so difficult a task—she has acquired a truly remarkable mastery over the English language. Mr. Froude remarks, in the preface with which he introduces her book to the English reader, that "as to execution and workmanship no foreigner who has attempted to write in the English language has ever, to my knowledge, shown more effective command of it. O. K. plays with our most complicated idioms, and turns and twists and points her sarcasms with a skill which many an accomplished English authoress might despair of imitating." For example, what could be more neatly put than the following retort to Mr. Forbes's denunciation of the "favoritism" which prevails in the Russian army?

"Englishmen, of course, who never have any little difficulties between the Horse Guards and the War Office, and who select their commander-in-chief not because he is a Royal Highness, but solely because he is the greatest military genius in the land, cannot understand the existence of such a thing as favoritism in the army."

But, in addition to pungency of retort, O. K. brings to her task a very complete knowledge of the subject, and an eloquence born of enthusiasm and deep convictions. Whether or not she will succeed in the philanthropic task she has undertaken is hard to say. We think not; and for this reason: English Russophobia (for it is confined to England; neither Ireland nor Scotland is subject to it) is as truly a superstition as was the belief in witches. Such superstitions do not yield either to reason or to fact directly urged against them. They seem to melt away, no one can say how. The English, as a nation, are peculiarly liable to these unworthy panics. Among Mr. Cobden's political pamphlets there is one entitled "The Three Panics," which describes an absolutely groundless paroxysm of terror into which England was thrown on three successive occasions by the notion that the French Government was about to invade the country. It was in vain that sane people, like Mr. Cobden and a few others, produced whole masses of facts to show that the French Government entertained no such intention; and that even if they did, they had no means for carrying such an intention into effect. All that they obtained in requital for their endeavors was the dislike and distrust of their countrymen, and the accusation of being "unpatriotic," "French agents," and the like. The great majority of the nation called aloud upon the Government of the day to protect them from these imaginary terrors. Millions of money were expended on perfectly useless fortifications; and but for the fixed determination of the Emperor Louis Napoleon *not* to quarrel with Great Britain, it is not improbable that the two nations might have drifted into war. The terror with which Englishmen once regarded France they have now transferred to Russia. Terror naturally engenders hatred; and the strength and popularity of Lord Beacons-

field's government have been largely due to the fact that they have stimulated these popular feelings to the uttermost.

This antipathy to her country O. K. hopes to remove, at least in part, by the publication of this book. She shows what was plain to all men, the British Jingo excepted, that it was the Russian people who dragged a reluctant Government into the Russo-Turkish war. She relates the repeated and desperate endeavors of the Russian Government to maintain the peace down to that wondrous device of a perfectly meaningless Protocol, which, however, Lord Derby could not summon up the courage to sign until he had taken elaborate precautions to prevent any meaning being slipped into it surreptitiously after his signature had been appended. There are, according to O. K., two Russias in Russia—the Russia of St. Petersburg and the Russia of Moscow. The former is a sophisticated Russia, the denizens of which answer to the loungers in London clubs and West-End pavements. They cared little or nothing what happened to their kindred groaning under Turkish cruelty and rapacity, and they hung like a clog impeding the action of the Government. But the Russia of St. Petersburg was finally overborne and carried away by the might of righteous wrath and enthusiasm which proceeded from the Russia of Moscow.

"Rightly," says O. K., "to understand the genuine spontaneity of the national Slavonic movement which forced our Government into a war at a time when they were notoriously unprepared for such an enterprise, it was necessary to have resided in Russia when the news of the rising of the Christians in the Balkans stirred the national heart to its depths. Whatever doubts might prevail outside Russia, no one, be he ever so prejudiced, who witnessed the explosion of national and religious enthusiasm which shook Russia from her centre to her circumference, could deny the reality and spontaneity of the all-prevailing sentiment, the fervor of which our officials in vain endeavored to abate. Even the English ambassador was impressed by the unprecedented spectacle of a torrent of enthusiasm sweeping away an entire people."

O. K. then proceeds to extract copiously from Lord Augustus Loftus's despatches to Lord Derby, describing the universal excitement, which could not fail to compel the Government to adopt a policy in harmony with its own desires. It will be a lasting disgrace affixed to Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues that, possessing as they did proofs which they could not question of the Emperor Alexander's earnest desire for peace, they never ceased from studiously misrepresenting his motives, both in their own public speeches and in the columns of the ministerial journals. The most signal example of these practices occurred immediately after the divulging of the conditions of the peace arranged at San Stefano. Just as the Russian armies were crossing the Pruth, the Government of the Emperor made known to Lord Derby the conditions of peace which they intended to exact at the close of the war. On the fall of Plevna the nature of these conditions was again laid before the British Government, and on both occasions the British Government expressed its gratification at the moderation of the Russian demands. The Treaty of San Stefano adhered exactly to these conditions. None the less, Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues, withholding the fact that these conditions had been known to them for seven months, and had actually gained their approval, did not hesitate to raise a great cry of amazement at their exorbitant and unexpected character. They pretended to be hugely frightened by them. They declared that the liberties of Europe were placed in peril—that international law, the sacredness of treaties, and heaven knows what else, had all received so grievous a shock that but for the providential existence of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry they would have perished irredeemably. They called out the Reserves, amid the plaudits of the British Jingos; they solemnly played out the ridiculous farce of bringing seven thousand Sepoys to Malta in order to strike terror into the hearts of the men who had crossed the Balkans in the depth of winter and captured four entire armies—and ended by wriggling out of an untenable position by means of two secret agreements.

On all these phases of the Eastern question O. K. is extremely pungent, and not a little amusing.

"What amuses us," she says, "is the delusion that Russians are to be frightened into compliance with Lord Beaconsfield's dictates by the sudden apparition of your Indian soldiers. Chinese rather like sham demonstrations of this sort, and employ pasteboard dragons and shields painted with horrible demons to frighten European soldiers. Why should Lord Beaconsfield imitate the Chinese? . . . Surely no serious Englishman can believe that Russia will yield to England that which she believes to be unjust because Lord Beaconsfield has added to the forces of the Empress forty thousand Reserves and six thousand Sepoys! We knew before these 'spirited demonstrations' that England was rich, and we also knew the precise limits of your military resources. Why do you forget our history? Napoleon took Moscow, but he did not conquer Russia; nor did England with all her allies succeed in doing more than

* "Russia and England from 1876 to 1880. A Protest and an Appeal. By O. K." London: Longmans, Green & Co.

capture Sebastopol. Vulgar insults and ridiculous threats do a great deal of harm, but not in the sense some people imagine."

In truth, neither Lord Beaconsfield nor his colleagues ever had the remotest intention of going to war with Russia. They never considered their foreign policy in the light of its practical results either upon the Christian races in Turkey or upon the Russians. Their policy was merely a theatrical exhibition wherewith they hoped—and, as the result has shown, not without good cause—to gull the simple mind of the British Jingo into a profound belief in their valor and determination.

Elihu Burritt. A memorial volume, containing a sketch of his life and labors, with selections from his writings and lectures, and extracts from his private journals in Europe and America. Edited by Charles Northend. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Burritt was a characteristic product of his age in two striking particulars: he was a self-made man and a philanthropist. He will, doubtless, be longest remembered under the name of the Learned Blacksmith, by which he first became known. From the time when, after a hard day's study, he translated the first fifteen lines of Homer with only the aid of a dictionary, and, going out for a walk, stopped to look up at Yale College, "with a kind of defiant feeling," he devoted himself to the acquisition of languages with an industry, perseverance, and singleness of aim which resulted in his being able to read in an extraordinary number of them, and made him in the popular mind perhaps the most prominent example of a self-made student. In this way his life has been an encouragement, and, in a certain sense, has served as an ideal, to many young men; yet he did not have a remarkable linguistic faculty (he says that even his taste for languages was acquired), and his knowledge, excepting in so far as he himself derived satisfaction from it, was of no use to him in his practical labors.

He was by nature a philanthropist, and spent the last thirty years of his mature life in advancing those movements which have for their end the general welfare of the race. He was especially interested in the Peace agitation, which aimed at establishing an organized system for the settlement of international disputes by arbitration. He was instrumental in allaying the war feeling at the time of the Oregon controversy, in founding the League of Universal Brotherhood, and in convening the first Peace Congress at Brussels, in 1848. Indeed, the accounts in this volume involve the whole history of the successive Peace Congresses, at most of which he attended. They reveal, too, sometimes with considerable naïveté, the attitude of such men as Sir Robert Peel, Henry Clay, and Lamartine toward the movement, which, however, could enlist John Bright and Cobden in its support. It is difficult to estimate the practical effect of this agitation (the Geneva arbitration is here claimed as a result of it); but, to whatever extent public opinion may have been influenced by it, Mr. Burritt, who lived to see the Crimean War, the Civil War, and the wars of Germany, must have recognized its little consequence in practical politics. Probably Mr. Burritt's interest in this cause, in connection with his Jeffersonian ideas, explains his approval of the plan to purchase the Southern slaves by money derived from a sale of the public lands, and the somewhat doubtful sympathy he seems to have felt with the North in the Rebellion. The only object for which he worked with success was the establishment of ocean penny-postage. He began the agitation for it in 1847, and lived to see it introduced. This was a real service to mankind, like that of Sir Rowland Hill, and for it he deserves a grateful acknowledgment.

The latter portion of this volume is taken up with selections from Mr. Burritt's literary works, which numbered over thirty volumes. They are all of transitory interest, unless the entertaining sketches of life in England, as he saw it in a foot-tour through various parts of the country, be excepted. He had no literary skill. If one considers the circumstances of his life and education, it is creditable to him that he did so well; but, measured on the absolute scale of excellence, he displayed no literary gift except a sense of rhetorical effects, and no originality of thought. He had little poetical discrimination, and his statement that Shakspeare "made the heroes of the siege of Troy more Greek in mien, mind, form, and stature than Homer could paint them," does not speak well for his classical attainments. It is fortunate that his claim to remembrance does not lie in his literary performance. It is rather as a man, interested in humane works and devoting his whole life to them, that he merits and will receive recognition. In this view he was as attractive in his public career as he was amiable in private life. In both of these relations this volume, which is a brief, simple, and sympathetic biography, does him ample justice.

The Law of Hotel Life: or, The Wrongs and Rights of Host and Guest. By R. Vashon Rogers, jr. (San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Rogers is a Canadian lawyer who may fairly be said to have invented a new species of literature. He is the writer of books, of which "The Law of Hotel Life" is a good specimen, intended to furnish useful legal information in an attractive form. Instead of presenting the law applicable to inn-keeper and guest in the usual form of abstract propositions fortified by citations of authorities, he gives it a dramatic origin and interest by introducing to us half a dozen characters, whose adventures and conversation suggest the legal discussion which is necessary for his purpose. Chapter I, for instance, which is entitled "A Common Inn and Inn-keeper," begins in this entirely unprofessional way: "The last kiss was given—the last embrace over—and, amid a storm of hurrahs and laughter and a hailstorm of old slippers and uncooked rice, we dashed away from my two-hours' bride's father's country mansion in the new family carriage, on our wedding-tour." This opening reminds us of nothing in strictly legal literature with the exception of some of the more imaginative work of a recent reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, who once began a report in this manner: "Among the festal anniversaries of the city of Providence, R.I., is that known as 'Commencement Day.' Upon this occasion Brown University gives its degrees, and citizens and strangers throng the town." The method, though objectionable in a reporter, is not at all so in the case of a treatise of the sort which Mr. Rogers has aimed at producing. The first day's drive of the happy pair (the husband is, of course, a lawyer) ends at an inn, and here begins the legal discussion. The landlord gives them a room, muttering that if they do not like it they may leave and go elsewhere, which the husband points out is, as a legal position, perfectly sound, inasmuch as a landlord is not bound, under the decision in the eighth volume of Meeson & Welsby, etc., etc., to do more than provide reasonable and proper accommodation, and need not give his guests the precise rooms they may select. In the same gentle and seductive manner are we led through the pages of Mr. Rogers's little book to consider the law relating to accidents in hotels, dogs in hotels, wagers, games, safes, baggage, fire, burglary, notices to quit, and a thousand other matters which are more or less connected with his general subject.

A law-book managed in this way may, like any other law-book, be well or ill done, and Mr. Rogers's work is, on the whole, very thorough, besides being, on account of its novel form, frequently very amusing. The law of hotels, except so far as it has been altered by statute, is precisely the same that it was in the days of Coke, although the character of the modern hotel is very different from that of the old-fashioned inn. The modern hotel is both a place of shelter and entertainment for the travelling public, and is also a sort of public club-house, under the roof of which anybody, traveller or not, can be furnished with all the necessities and luxuries of existence on paying for them. These establishments are frequently owned by corporations, and, when not so, by some large capitalist who, unlike the old-fashioned landlord, exercises no direct supervision over the management, but delegates it entirely to agents and servants. Under these circumstances the courts in modern times have wisely shown a great reluctance to relax the old common-law rule imposed on hotel-keepers, which, notwithstanding occasional inconveniences, have proved their value by the experience of many generations. We are sorry not to find in Mr. Rogers's book any discussion of the great Jew question which has agitated American hotel-keepers for the past few summers. We are inclined to think that this would have to be settled as a matter of law by very simple considerations. A hotel-keeper, as Mr. Rogers points out, is obliged to receive all proper persons who apply for admission. So, too, is a carrier of passengers. It is generally held, however, that a carrier of passengers may classify those whom he transports, by sex, race, etc. This would be manifestly out of the question in a hotel, as no separation is possible. A Jew, therefore, as a Jew, could hardly be excluded from Manhattan Beach or Saratoga without giving him a good cause of action. Whether, under the practice prevailing in New York, he would also be entitled to remedy, by way of mandamus and injunction, we do not undertake to say.

A Class-Book History of England. Illustrated with numerous woodcuts and historical maps. Compiled for pupils preparing for the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, the London Universities' matriculation, and for the higher classes of elementary schools. By the Rev. David Morris, M.A. Lond. Fifteenth thousand. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. 532.)—This is a very useful compilation.

The editor has followed the best authorities, and has chosen his material with good judgment and put it together with skill. The most valuable feature of it, as compared with other similar works, is the care and clearness with which the history of the most important legislation in England is sketched—for example (p. 196), the Statute of Fines and the abolition of *Maintenances*, in the reign of Henry VII. A good deal of space is given also to those details of manners and customs which may be made very instructive when properly combined and treated in the light of social history, but which, as usually given, are dull and unedifying reading. They are, on the whole, very well treated here, and the illustrations of costume, arms, etc., are valuable. The tone of the book is that of a believer in the constitution and Church of England as now established. The author appears to have rather more sympathy with Charles I. than we have. He assumes (p. 245) the complicity of Mary in the Babington plot, which we suppose to be far from proved. His tone with regard to the American Revolution is unexceptionable, although we cannot understand what he means by the statement, in speaking of the principle of taxation without representation, that "as they were not represented properly in their own assemblies, over whose acts the Crown had a veto, they denied the right of England to tax them" (p. 440). In speaking of the feudal incidents (p. 52) it ought to be stated that the right of *Primerseisin* was confined to the king.

The wood cuts, although instructive, are coarse. The maps are better; clear and accurate. The map of the English possessions in France in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries (p. 148) is particularly good, and makes the changes in dominion during this period clearer than any other with which we are acquainted. But why do we meet with such hybrid English as "Comté of Champagne," and that, too, by the side of "Dy of Burgundy"? There are abundant genealogical tables and lists of leading events, leading writers, battles, etc.; but we miss lists of contemporary sovereigns, also archbishops of Canterbury, prime ministers, lord chancellors, and chief-justices. There is no index.

Eyesight: Good and Bad. A Treatise on the Exercise and Preservation of Vision. By Robert Brudenell Carter, F.R.C.S., etc. With numerous illustrations. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880. Pp. viii.-265.)—This book is intended by the author to convey to the public "precepts and injunctions which ought to be universally known and understood." The intelligent reader who desires to master the subject from its popular side—that is, entirely without reference to the use of medicines or surgical instruments—will find a perfectly satisfactory account of the structure and optical properties of the eyes; the forms and use of lenses; the defects or diseases dependent on the optical properties and requiring the use of lenses, as squinting, near-sight, far-sight, and astigmatism; with a good deal more about weak sight, color-blindness, and the care of the eyes.

Those who are averse to diagrams will perhaps skip the early chapters. The latter part of the book, however, contains a good many remarks and anecdotes which impart a very "readable" character, with a great deal of information which we are sure will be highly valued not only by all who have had to be careful of their own eyes, but by superintendents of education, and, we may add, by general practitioners of medicine. The book is *new* in the best sense, and presents in a popular yet accurate form the most recent advances in science. We may mention, among many points that have taken our notice, the recommendation to give near-sighted children glasses to be worn *constantly*, sometimes one pair for all purposes, and sometimes one for far and one for near objects; a case of near-sight producing in a hard student symptoms attributed to brain-disease, which threatened to ruin his career, but were cured by glasses; advice in regard to cultivating a habit of observation; the preservation of sight by use; unrecognized near-sight and far-sight in children; the choice of spectacles; the worthlessness of green glass as a protective; the choice of lamps, burners, oils, and screens; and contrivances for saving visual effort in writing—book-holders, type-writers, frames for writing in the dark, etc.

Lightning Conductors: Their History, Nature, and Mode of Application. By Richard Anderson, F.C.S., F.G.S. (London: E. & F. M. Spon. 1879.)—In America such a book as this would be liable to the suspicion of being a rather cleverly written advertisement. The *historical* part of the work leads up to a chapter devoted to the so-called "system of protecting buildings" of an English manufacturer of lightning conductors and their

fixtures. The only valuable features of this "system," and the only important scientific principles enunciated by the author, have been recognized and acted upon in this country for nearly fifty years.

The *Athenæum*, in noticing Mr. Anderson's "history," refers to Franklin's experiment with the kite, which demonstrated the identity of lightning with electricity, and finds cause for "satisfaction in behalf of the Old World" that "this triumph of experimental sagacity" was anticipated by "an experiment made at the suggestion of Buffon by M. Dalibard." The facts are that Franklin suggested the experiment tried by M. Dalibard in a letter dated July 19, 1750, to Peter Collinson of London, which Mr. Collinson communicated to the English public. This letter, which contained an account of many interesting experiments, having been (Mr. Anderson says at the instance of the Count de Buffon) translated into French and printed in Paris, attracted the attention of the King, who greatly applauded Messrs. Franklin and Collinson, and, according to the letter of the Abbé Mazéas to Dr. Stephen Hales, dated St. Germain, May 20, 1752, and printed in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' "these applauses of his Majesty having excited in Messieurs De Buffon, D'Alibard, and De Lora a desire of verifying the conjectures of Mr. Franklin upon the analogy of thunder and electricity, they prepared themselves for making the experiment." The Dalibard experiment was not made until May 10, 1752, nearly two years after Franklin proposed it, and was then performed by the method which Franklin prescribed.

Vergil. By H. Nettleship. In "Classical Writers," edited by John Richard Green. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Nettleship is well known for his studies in Vergil, having assisted Mr. Conington in preparing the third volume of his edition, and having since published some valuable papers containing the results of his subsequent researches. The present hand-book gives a good account of the poet and his writings, with a few pages upon the general characteristics of his style, and the estimate formed of his poetry in his lifetime and soon after. Some attention is paid to the chronology of the Bucolic poems. Their composition is assigned to 43-37 B.C., reaching over a period of nearly seven years. But it is a question whether the few and uncertain historical allusions in these poems furnish sufficient ground for rejecting, as so many do, the statements found in Donatus and Servius, that Vergil began the Eclogues at the age of twenty-eight and completed them in the space of three years. The chronological order is not essentially different from that given by Voss in his edition of the Eclogues. In the chapter on the 'Æneid' Mr. Nettleship aims to show that Vergil attempted a more difficult task than any Roman poet before him had ever ventured upon, when he undertook to write a national epic based upon the Æneas legend, and that, so far from being a mere imitator, he displayed great original power in handling his materials, and "produced work that marks the climax of a particular kind of poetry." While his estimate of the 'Æneid' is undoubtedly too high, it is more nearly just than that of the German and many English critics, by whom it has been so much underrated.

Mr. Nettleship is in full sympathy with his author, and has the faculty of imparting to the reader something of his own interest in his subject. He writes in a clear and simple style, and treats with great fairness opinions that do not coincide with his own. The book offers in an attractive form just the aid needed for an intelligent reading of the poet.

* Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Belows (Rev. H. W.), William Ellery Channing, swd.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) \$9 50
Blauqui (J. A.), History of Political Economy in Europe.....	3 50
Brandes (G.), Lord Beaconsfield.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Brooks (Rev. C. T.), William Ellery Channing.....	(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Burnett (F. H.), Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Carlos (E. S.), The Mideval Messenger of Galileo Galilei.....	(Pott, Young & Co.)
Channing (W. H.), Life of Wm. Ellery Channing, b.D.....	(Am. Unit. Assoc.) 1 00
Cheerful Words from George MacDonald.....	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 00
Cherbuliez (V.), Stroke of Diplomacy, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Coan (Rev. T.), Adventures in Patagonia.....	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 25
Cory (W.), Guide to Modern English History, Part I.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Crosby (W. O.), Contributions to the Geology of Eastern Massachusetts, swd.....	(Boston) 3 00
D'Audiffret (E.), Notes d'un Globe-Trotter, swd.....	(F. W. Christern)
Democracy: an American Novel.....	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Doest (C.), Gocce d'Inchiostro, swd.....	(Roma)
Duff (R. F.), The Lusad of Camoens.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Harrison (Rev. J. B.), Certain Dangerous Tendencies in American Life.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 25
Hempel (Dr. C. J.), Schiller's Complete Works, 2 vols., illustrated, new ed., (L. Kohler)	5 00
Irving (W.), Knickerbocker's New York.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Jackson (Rev. S.), Alaska, illustrated.....	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 1 50
Aschwer (C. A.), Practical Exercises for Students.....	(Holt & Co.) 2 50
Jones (H.), Card Essays, etc.....	" " 1 00
Littell's Living Age, Jan.-Mar. 1880.....	(Littell & Co.)

Lansdale (Margaret), Sister Dora.....	(Roberts Bros.)	\$1 25
Mactoll (Rev. M.), The Ober-Ammergau Passion Play, new ed.....	(Pott, Young & Co.)	3 00
Onunannay (Rev. G. D. W.), Early History of the Athanasian Creed.....	(Pott, Young & Co.)	3 00
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Parts 1-16: France, Ancient Rome, Russia, Ancient India, swd.....	(B. Westermann & Co.)	2 00
Oxenham (H. N.), Recollections of Ober-Ammergau in 1871.....	(Pott, Young & Co.)	2 00
Peabody (Miss E. P.), Reminiscences of Wm. Ellery Channing.....	(Roberts Bros.)	2 00
Rylands (Rev. J. H.), Lectures on Social Questions.....	(Thos. Whitaker)	75
Scribner's Monthly, Vol. XIX.....	(Scribner & Co.)	3 00
Spaulding (Rev. J. L.), Religious Mission of the Irish People.....	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	1 25
Studies of Irving.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Thanksgiving and Other Poems.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Wood (Rev. J. G.), Insects Abroad.....	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	1 00
Woolson (Miss C. F.), Rodman the Keeper: Southern Sketches.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 00
Young (J. R.), Around the World with General Grant, Parts 1-20.....	(Atto. News Co.)	10 00
Zola (E.), Nana.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	1 00

Fine Arts.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN—FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION.—I.

THE pictures at the Academy divide of themselves into two groups: the work of Academicians and others in sympathy with these, and that of the "new men" whose names have appeared in the Academy for the past four years only. The line which divides the two is so distinct as to prevent this apparently rough classification from being unreasonably loose or fanciful, and, though there are exceptions on either side, they are neither so important nor so noticeable as usual. It is this evident contrast which is the most satisfactory thing about the exhibition as a whole; the circumstance that the "new men" are doing work so different from that which is intimately associated with the Academy as to be intrinsically hostile to it in both spirit and method, attests progress and inspires hope, spite of various obvious qualifications. Otherwise the exhibition, taken as a whole, indicates the reverse of progress; or, if not positive retrogression, at any rate a severe and almost stern disposition on the part of the principal exhibitors to preserve the identity so long maintained, and, since the advent of the "new men," so sensitively guarded. This is the general impression that one gets, and it is quite as strong as that left by the evidences of progress, so that the elation excited by the exhibition of 1877, and more or less justified since, receives a kind of check, slight it may be, but altogether palpable. Perhaps after all, one reflects, the theory and practice of art in vogue at the Academy from its foundation have an ingrained sturdiness that makes it idle to look to any transformation of them. If this be true it is well to know it, and from this point of view it is not impossible to feel grateful to a hanging committee which has clearly done its best to force the fact upon public attention. Some gratitude, similarly, is due to certain Academicians, not at all representative of the Academy, such as Mr. Inness and Mr. La Farge, who have failed to send anything to the exhibition, or Mr. Martin, who sends only a study from nature, very agreeable as such, but without much pictorial effort or ambition. Mr. Winslow Homer's negro character portraiture and four canvases by Mr. Page count as noteworthy exceptions. The former is very clever, very real, and very sympathetic; Mr. Homer's own turn for picturesqueness finds an excellent ally in the almost aggressive picturesqueness of negro traits and aspect, and if it is singular that this should have been so long neglected, it is fortunate that it should have found its first serious interpreter in him; he seems, indeed, to have been so completely absorbed by it in his "A Visit from the Old Mistress" as to have left off when he had painted the negro figures, and to have abandoned the "old mistress" to her own devices, so that she seems to be trying to account for her presence a little awkwardly. Mr. Page's contributions are an agreeable surprise; it is some years since he has exhibited anything, and the absence of his work is always regrettable. These are used to "redeem" the northwest room, which is usually characterless, and they perform this service at an unfortunate sacrifice; "The Flight into Egypt" being hung so high that it is only possible to get the suggestion of a grave charm, and the others being in a constant shadow that is particularly unfavorable to their exaggerated low tone. The portrait of General Grant was painted immediately after the close of the war, and much of the color has already proved so treacherous that it looks unpleasantly dark; the uniform, for example, has lost its blue and is a disagreeable dull brown. But if the face and figure were ever more effective it must have been at one time a master-piece; it is a large and dignified work, such as few portraits even lay claim to being, and it is hardly fanciful to see in its lineaments and attitude the explanation of the career at the climax of which it was painted; so good a portrait of Grant at the present time would be interesting to compare with it.

What we may call the academic part of the exhibition has, however, few such exceptions as these. It is very adequately represented by the line of the south wall. To the visitor entering the main room from the

corridor this presents the following succession: "The Tabouret," by E. Wood Perry; "Into the Sea," by A. F. Bellows; "A Forest Scene in New Jersey," by J. F. Cropsey; "Wilson G. Hunt," by D. Huntington; "The New England Shore," by W. Whittredge; "At the Spring," by H. A. Loop; "The Cranberry Harvest, Island of Nantucket," by Eastman Johnson; "At the Brookside," by James M. Hart; "The Longshoremen's Noon," by J. G. Brown; "Portrait of a Lady," by B. C. Porter; "The Coast of New England," by R. Swain Gifford; "A Mexican Portrait," by G. W. Maynard; and "Hanging Clothes," by J. N. Marble. Of these painters all but the last two and Mr. Porter, who is an associate, are Academicians. The series sweeps the gamut of the art of the Academy, rising to its highest pitch, perhaps, in Mr. Eastman Johnson's Nantucket picture, and sinking to its lowest, it may be, in Mr. Bellows's unaccountable performance. The point is, however, a fine one in either instance; Mr. Brown's longshoremen are formidable rivals of Mr. Johnson's cranberry pickers, and one is hardly disposed, on reflection, to single out any of Mr. Bellows's work as possessing merit that is distinctive. Mr. Perry's young lady and her surroundings have an excellence that is depressing; one thinks of the infinite labor, the skill, the patience displayed in the picture, its careful drawing, its careful graduation of light, its careful composition, the thought and invention expended in getting the details together, and then of the result of it all; it is not exhilarating, and only the uneasy critic will endeavor to discover why its elaboration is not elegant and its skill not even cleverness, and why it has so obviously sought beauty on the one hand and reality on the other, and is so far from being either beautiful or real. Mr. Brown's canvas has an air of resolute realism which is, however, transitory, and is dissipated after a brief inspection. His "realism" has indeed made notable progress within a few years, and has not only lost a good deal of the sentimentality which used to be the prevailing characteristic of his work, but makes an evident effort at "painting the thing"; his studies in the last exhibition succeeded in this very hopefully, but, unhappily, in passing from a study to a "picture" his grasp on "the thing" is somehow loosened. So far, at all events, he has only reached the point where the average person thinks his figures very real, because they look very much as their originals appear to the average person, or as the latter fancies they would look if he should run across them; it is like the reality of Dickens's characters. This is a point, to be sure, at which it is commercially wise to pause, but which is considerably on the hither side of fine art.

Nevertheless there is some refreshment to be obtained from a canvas which at least seeks "realism" with enough force to avoid the poetic ideal towards which it is evident from his "At the Spring" Mr. Loop continues to labor. The mistake of confusing the attributes of this intrepidly recurrent young woman with even the poetry of prettiness is, perhaps, the most hopeless of all mistakes a painter can make, we should say; it being a defect of native susceptibility. Whether it is this or a merely visual defect that is responsible for the way in which the "gentle perspiration" of nature finds interpretation in Mr. James Hart's scumbling, and the glories of landscape in Mr. William Hart's glazing, across the way, is an enquiry for the curious. Mr. Cropsey's landscape signalizes a new departure, but is not otherwise happy. A new departure is the last thing Mr. Swain Gifford contemplates at present, it is evident, and we are beginning to wish for one in Mr. Gifford's case, and, we may add, since he is more or less of a "new man," to hope for one. Mr. Whittredge and Mr. Huntington betray no signs of discontent with what they have been doing for so long now, and a similar serenity in Mr. Johnson, to whom it is rather agreeable to return, is, perhaps, the worst thing to be said of his picture. It has the main "centre," and to say that it is the star picture of that portion of the exhibition of which we have been speaking is a kind of reciprocal characterization that is not inaccurate. The town of Nantucket lies in the distance by the sea-shore at the left, the cranberry-bog dotted with figures occupies the middle distance, behind it the ground rises good-naturedly to form a background, and overhead hangs a sky a trifle more leaden than it was meant to be, possibly. The "human element" comprises almost all the details, except the baskets, a chair in which Mr. Johnson's celebrated old man is sitting, and a sign-board bearing a legible warning to trespassers. Both sexes and a variety of ages are represented; the matter in hand is apparently pretty closely attended to, and there is no posing for effect on the part of anybody; there does not seem to be much going on; cranberry-picking is evidently not exciting, and you feel that though there is "no harm in it," it is not particularly picturesque. The picture is well painted—well enough painted, that is to say; Mr. Perry could undoubtedly point out some careless and clumsy touches here and there, and would certainly find a

painful lack of gradation in it; but upon the whole it is not very impressive, and it is perhaps possible to sum up its attractions in the negative epithet inoffensive. Mr. Johnson's position in American genre-painting is relatively a high one; his success in avoiding the defects of many of his rivals has always been marked; he is neither sentimental, nor sensational, nor stupid. Indeed, there are all sorts of things which he is not; what

precisely he is it is rather difficult to discover, and accordingly it has been a popular custom for many years to enter judgment in his favor by default, as it were. A glance at Mr. Bierstadt's "Shore of the Turquoise Sea," in the same room, reminds one that popular errors far graver than this are possible, and recalls a vogue once very great, but now become little more than a memory.

Henry Holt & Co.'s NEW BOOKS.

Democracy.

AN AMERICAN NOVEL.

"There can hardly be two opinions as to its ability. Not one of the recent novels touching upon American politics equals it in cleverness."—N. Y. TIMES.

"This theme [government under a system of universal suffrage] is handled with a strong, resolute, masterly hand; the hand, moreover, of an artist who knows how to manage its lights and shades, how to put human nature and human life and human passion into the story. . . . Altogether the story is a fine and significant piece of work. . . . It may be commended to all novel-readers as an excellent and thoroughly entertaining novel; while to more serious minds it presents with almost startling vividness and force the gravest truths that can occupy the attention of patriotic men and women."—N. Y. EVENING POST.

"The story deserves to be read, and is sure of being read."—N. Y. WORLD.

"Cavendish's" Card Essays,

Clay's Decisions and Card-Table Talk. With Portrait of the Author. 16mo, Leisure-Hour Series, \$1.

Practical Keramics for Students.

By C. A. Janvier. Square 8vo, price \$2.50.

Dobson's Vignettes in Rhyme.

With an Introduction by E. C. Stedman. Square 12mo, gilt, \$2.

Cory's Guide to Modern History.

Part I., 1815-1830. 8vo, \$2.

Gautier's Captain Fracasse.

16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), \$1.

Cox's Popular Romances of the Middle Ages.

Large 12mo, \$2.25.

Mrs. Brassey's Sunshine and Storm in the East.

With 114 illustrations and 2 maps. 8vo, \$3.50.

Escott's England:

Her People, Polity, and Pursuits. 8vo, \$4.

Rydberg's Magic of the Middle Ages.

12mo, \$1.50.

Farrer's Primitive Manners and Customs.

12mo, \$1.75.

Packard's Zoology.

For Students and General Readers. Large 12mo (American Science Series), \$3.

Newcomb and Holden's Astronomy.

For Students and General Readers. Large 12mo, \$2.50.

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

A LIBERAL ADMINISTRATION IN ENGLAND

Readers of special interest for American readers.

THE LIFE of W. E. GLADSTONE.

By George Barnett Smith. Large octavo, with two portraits, cloth extra, \$4.

"A history of British home and foreign politics during the past three-quarters of a century. . . . Written with ability and fairness."—New York Post.

Also ready:

HISTORY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY in Europe.

By Jerome Adolphe Blanqui, Member of the Institute and Professor of Political Economy. Translated by Emily J. Leonard. With an Introduction by the Hon. David A. Wells. Octavo, cloth extra, \$3.50.

This important work, by one of the ablest economists of this century, embraces an account of the economic ideas and systems that have prevailed in Europe from the times of the Greeks and Romans to the present generations, and of the causes which have produced the successive modifications in civil, industrial, and commercial ideas and in governmental policy.

"An all-important addition to the literature of political economy. . . . The translation appears to be accurate, clear, and intelligent. . . . and the notes are judicious and valuable."—Prof. W. G. Sumner, of Yale College.

WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING:

His Opinions, Genius, and Character. By Henry W. Bellows, D.D. Octavo, sewed, 50 cents.

STUDIES OF IRVING.

By Charles Dudley Warner, William Cullen Bryant, and George Palmer Putnam. Octavo, cloth extra, \$1.

Forms a valuable supplementary volume for all sets of Irving's works.

Ready in a few days:

THE NEW PLUTARCH SERIES

of Lives of Those Who Have Made the History of the World. Edited by Walter Besant. 16mo, cloth extra, per volume, \$1. Vol. IV. JOAN OF ARC, AND THE EXPULSION OF THE ENGLISH FROM FRANCE. By Janet Luckey.

Previously published in the Series:

ABRAHAM LINCOLN. By C. G. Leland.

ADMIRAL COLIGNY. By Walter Besant.

JUDAS MACCABEUS. By C. E. Conder.

THE TRANSATLANTIC SERIES

of Foreign Fiction. Vol. II. THE AMAZON. By Franz Dingelstedt. Translated by James M'rgan Hart.

Of this novel such a good authority as the *Blätter für literarische Unterhaltung* says: "It is full of scintillations of wit; sparkles throughout with vivacity and charming fancy. . . . Characterized by a delicacy of humor and a piquant study of character which could hardly be surpassed." *Über Land und Meer* says: "We admire especially the profound knowledge of human nature and experience, the psychological discrimination, and the unerring penetration with which Dingelstedt portrays men and situations."

FREE TRADE AND FREE LAND.

By the Hon. S. S. Cox. 12mo, cloth, \$1.25.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,

152 Fifth Avenue.

And all dealers.

NOW READY.

Lectures on Social Questions.

Competition, Communism, Co-operation, and the Relation of Christianity to Socialism.

By J. H. RYLAND, D.D.

135 pp., 12mo, cloth, 75 cents; paper, 50 cents.

For sale by all booksellers. Copies mailed upon receipt of price.

THOMAS WHITTAKER,

2 and 3 Bible House, New York.

NEW EDITION OF

Little Folks in Feathers and Fur, and Others in Neither.

By Olive Thorne Miller. 4to, 368 pages, with 175 illustrations, cloth, \$2.25.

This was one of the most successful books for children last year and has been out of print since Christmas.

It is used in private schools, and cannot fail to interest children in the study of natural history.

"Nothing more fascinating than this, and nothing more profitable, has been written for children. It is a book of natural history, in which everything is treated playfully and with special reference to the capacity of facts to amuse children. Mrs. Miller manages very adroitly both to discover the attractive and amusing style of natural-history subjects, and to present it attractively to children."—N. Y. Evening Post.

"We can speak almost unreservedly in praise."—The Nation.

"Those parents who read these sketches to their little ones will find that they have gained knowledge themselves while giving amusement to others. It is altogether one of the most accurate as well as most entertaining books for the young that we have ever hit upon."—Examiner and Chronicle.

For sale at the Bookstores, or sent by mail, postage paid, on receipt of price.

E. P. DUTTON & CO.,

PUBLISHERS,

713 Broadway, New York.

Hermeneutics;

Or, Principles of Interpretation and Construction in Law and Politics; with remarks on PRECEDENTS AND AUTHORITIES.

By FRANCIS LIEBER, LL.D.,

Author of 'Manual of Political Ethics,' 'Civil Liberty and Self-Government,' etc., etc.

A New and Enlarged edition, with copious Notes and an Appendix, giving a full treatise on the History and Province of the Science of "Hermeneutics." By WILLIAM G. HAMMOND, LL.D., Professor of Law in Iowa State University.

1 vol. 8vo, 350 pp., cloth, price \$3 net; by mail, \$3.25.

F. H. THOMAS & CO., Law-Book Publishers,
ST. LOUIS, MO.

Boston Society of Natural History.

JUST PUBLISHED:

Contributions to the Geology of Eastern Massachusetts.

By WM. O. CROSBY. 8vo, 286 pp., with colored map and five plates. Price, post-paid, cloth, \$3.50; paper, \$3.

Address EDW. BURGESS, Secretary.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

Foreign Bookseller and Importer, 180 Fifth Avenue, New York.

The principal publications of Quantin, Charpentier, Dentu, Didot, Hachette, Calman Levy, etc., on hand; also complete sets of Tauchnitz's collection of British authors and Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. New publications received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

Vitalized Phosphates: A Brain and Nerve Food.

THIS DIFFERS FROM ALL OTHER TONICS BECAUSE IT IS COMPOSED OF THE VITAL OR NERVE-GIVING PRINCIPLES OF THE OX BRAIN AND WHEAT GERM.

It strengthens the digestion and restores to the brain and nerves the elements that have been carried off by disease, worry, or overwork. It revitalizes weakly children.

For sale by druggists, or by mail \$1.

F. CROSBY, 566 Sixth Avenue, New York.

